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**Faculty Perceptions of Dyadic Advising Relationships, Power, and Cultural Consciousness
on College Student Learning Outcomes**

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Dissertation

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Higher Education Leadership, Management, and Policy
concentration in Education Research, Assessment, and Program Evaluation

Seton Hall University

May 2021

South Orange, New Jersey

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COLLEGE OF EDUCATION & HUMAN SERVICES
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION LEADERSHIP MANAGEMENT & POLICY

APPROVAL FOR SUCCESSFUL DEFENSE

Hind Albana has successfully defended and made the required modifications to the text of the doctoral dissertation for the **Ph.D.** during this **Spring** Semester.

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Abstract

Academic advising in institutions of higher education lack consistent assessment and evaluation of practices impairing the ability to define the role, objectives, and methods utilized. Over-reliance on student satisfaction surveys for evaluating advising reinforces this phenomenon. To break the cycle, this study used survey responses from a nationwide sample ($N = 156$) of faculty advisors from public and private 4-year colleges and universities to examine the relationship between and among the constructs of a working relationship, shared power, cultural consciousness, and student learning outcomes. The questionnaire instrument score produced a Cronbach's alpha of .927, illustrating substantially strong internal consistency. As a set, the predictors power, cultural consciousness, and working alliance accounted for significant variation in student learning outcomes with $R^2 = .301$, $p < .001$. Developing a comprehensive advising model incorporating culture and power constructs, and utilizing student learning outcomes as a success measure, has the potential to foster more effective methods for providing research-informed advising with undergraduate students. This would promote consistency among advisors in language and expectations of advising practices to alleviate confusion for students, faculty, and administrators. These findings provide preliminary support for an omnibus assessment instrument to promote a universal evaluation of academic advising across campuses and academic departments.

Keywords: academic advising, higher education, assessment, evaluation, faculty, power, cultural consciousness, relationship, student learning outcomes, undergraduate students, colleges, universities

Dedication

To my father and mother, Fouad and Nawal, for the endless supply of laborious support, continual faith, and for allowing me to stand on your sturdy shoulders while I reached for elevated heights in pursuit of my dreams.

To my children, Nawal and Jad, who have resiliently endured my journey with patience and loving acceptance.

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My dissertation study highlights the importance of mentors, specifically the difference a mentoring relationship could make. In my most sincere heart, I believe that a good mentor could be the tipping scale between failure and success. I was lucky to have walked this final stage of my Ph. D program, completing my dissertation study, with my mentor Dr. Margaret (Peggy) Brady-Amoon. They say, 'luck favors the prepared'. After being introduced by Professor Rong Chen for our shared research interests I instantly knew I had met a caring, intelligent, and passionate scholar. While I may have been assisted by fortune it was no mistake I ended up with the greatest mentor. Peggy, your perfect blend of full acceptance and high expectations fueled my perseverance throughout this painstaking process. A good mentor believes in you more than you believe in yourself, and at every turn you have given me the reassurance to continue whenever doubt crept in.

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None of this could have been without my family. My mother and father, Fouad and Nawal, my siblings, Liali, Marwa, Sharifa, Sara, Mohamed, Hamdy, and Ryan, and my children,

Nawal and Jad. To my Dad, you recognized my fierce, independent, wild spirit and protected it. Your safeguard over me meant I could jump knowing a net will always catch me. Your simultaneous gentle and stern treatment, your fair and just behavior undeniably produces reverence personally, internally, from the entire family, and at large as a pillar within the community. Mom, you are my strength. Whenever I feel all hope is lost, with no options left, you are always there, rolling up your sleeves with an action plan and solutions. You are my knight in shining armor. You have quite literally dragged me through the finish line. My gratitude to you is immeasurable.

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Mohamed, the expectations set for you are immense, idealistic, and unattainable and yet you live up to the standards in every regard. I have grown with you by my side and never heard your name spoken without praise and admiration. Seeing you compels me to forever try harder! Hamdy, your ability to forge your own way, your courage and bravery into unknown territories encourages me to explore new ventures with excitement rather than apprehension. Ryan, as you grow into the man you will become, and as the next generation steps up, I watch you flourish.

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Nawal, I imagine you reading this, years from now looking back and remembering all the times I denied playing with you because I was drearily sitting at my computer typing away into the night. I imagine you understanding then and forgiving me. At six years old, you are wise, considerate, gentle, intelligent, attentive, and compassionate. You are my light. My star that illuminates every darkness. Jad, you are the jokester that keeps me smiling. Your mischievous and playful nature comes with determination. You will make anything fun and entertaining. You fill my world with joy.

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CHAPTER I

Introduction

Statement of Problem

Success is seldom achieved autonomously. Relationships, connections, and community are essential elements of reaching ones richest potential. Higher education institutions have implemented this philosophy through diverse student support systems on college campuses. The relationship between faculty advisors and undergraduate students is fundamental to advisement, student retention, and success (Johnson-Garcia, 2010; Leach & Wang, 2015; Moore, 2020; Schreiner et al., 2011; Thelin & Hirschy, 2009; Thomas, 2000). However, little is known about the dyadic advisory relationship, and less has been dedicated to the assessment of this student support service. Even well-established national databases focusing on undergraduate student experiences and attainment such as the National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE; 2008) fail to include adequate insight into and assessment of the dyadic dynamic. Truly assessing the effectiveness of an advising session has proven difficult due to the fluid nature of relationships including aspects of multicultural diversity and power differences (Benishek et al., 2004; Fassinger, 2005).

Advisors assisting undergraduate students may be diverse personnel working in various positions on campus (Kuhn et al., 2006) including faculty or professor advisors (Habley 2009; Kuhn et al., 2006). Faculty members have served as academic advisors since the beginning of higher education (Thelin & Hirschy, 2009) and, as content experts, have positive effects on student learning, persistence, and integration into the college environment (Schreiner et al., 2011) however, little is known about their perceptions, experiences, and assessment of academic advising. Research concerning academic advising in institutions of higher education has focused

on professional advisors and student responses, with a deficit of input from faculty (McClellan, 2011; Misra et al., 2000; Powers et al., 2014; Robbins, 2009; Robbins & Adams, 2013; Robbins & Zarges, 2011). Not having sufficient knowledge about faculty advisors' perspectives can be problematic since advisors have been identified as the direct link and liaison between students and the university (Peterson, 2016). Factors impacting students' feeling connected to the university include faculty attitudes, academic support services, and mentoring (Turner & Myers, 2000). Because of the large role faculty play in colleges and universities, particularly student support and advisement, their perceptions are valuable and can offer important contributions to the development of student support systems on campus. Faculty advisors may offer unique, learning-focused, approaches to advising students (He & Hutson, 2016).

Mentoring and Advising in Higher Education

Research has consistently, over the last 30 years, shown positive outcomes for mentoring in academic and professional settings (Atkinson et al., 1994; Benishek et al., 2004; Burgstahler & Cronheim, 2001; Campbell, & Campbell, 2007; Curtin et al., 2016; Dreher & Cox, 1996; Fries-Britt & Kelly-Turner, 2005; Hansen & Matthews, 2002; Peterson, 2016). Instrumental benefits of mentoring are reflected for both mentors and mentees, also referred to as proteges and mentoring relationships can provide a variety of supports including knowledge transfer, advice, social support, opportunities, sponsorship, and more (Burgstahler & Cronheim, 2001; Fries-Britt, & Kelly-Turner, 2005; Benishek et al., 2004; Hansen & Matthews, 2002). Mentoring and advising within institutions of higher education takes many distinct forms with diverse structural models across institutions. Institutional type or classification could impact the approach, policies, and culture surrounding advising. Differences in institutions include degree level offered such as 4-year universities offering baccalaureate degrees or higher, 2-year institutions offering 2-year

programs of college-level studies such as an associate's degree or credits toward a baccalaureate degree, and less-than-2-year institutions that offer programs such as occupational and vocational schools. Some universities are sectarian with a religious affiliation and others are not tied to a religious denomination or church. Institutional classifications include public, private for-profit, or private not-for-profit depending on funding and operational control. The Carnegie Classification System, developed in 1970 by the Andrew W. Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, is another major difference across institutional types. This classification of colleges and universities distinguishes between research activity and depends on scholarship and funding of research expenditures. These referenced differences and some other more minute nuances between institutions could impact the method and strategies put in place for implementing advising within colleges and universities.

Advising programs on college campuses can be centralized, providing one central advising office for students, or decentralized, where the service is provided within each department or discipline. Structures organized by centralized advising offices were found to lack adequate ability to assist students with either managing their academic journey or understanding how students' choices impact their academic success (Drake, 2011; Kot, 2014). Some universities developed models where students begin their academic degree with a professional advisor, within a centralized office, and transition into a decentralized structure with a specific advisor as they progress past their general education courses. Institutions may also assign one academic advisor for the duration of degree attainment. The discrepancy of methods across institutions and academic programs only adds to the inability to unify an understanding for the role.

There are very few, or no, higher education institutions that do not offer some level of academic advising, although not everyone fully understands the job. The role of an advisor has baffled, and continues to baffle, the minds of many administrators (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2015; Habley, 2009; Himes, 2014; Kuhn et al., 2006; Kuhn & Padak, 2008; McGill, 2013; McGill & Nutt, 2016; Shaffer et al., 2010). It is not uncommon to find different institutions refer to “counselor” or “advisor” interchangeably as a title for staff performing the same services. There are also many different types of “advisors” such as peer advisors, faculty advisors, professional full-time staff advisors, and career advisors, who all serve as academic advisors. All of these diverse positions perform academic advising services. Similarly, it would not be surprising to have advisor tacked on to a job responsibility for an alternative position such as intern, graduate assistant, paraprofessional, and mental health counselor. Even some administrators with titles such as director, assistant director, dean, assistant dean and coordinators are expected to perform some level of advising (Kuhn et al., 2006). This is just the tip of the iceberg. Advising has many diverse approaches and has been previously referred to as counseling, encouraging, learning, educating, mentoring, and advocating (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005; Lowenstein, 2005; Melander, 2005; Rawlins & Rawlins, 2005).

In a 1990 speech, Morris Zelditch, a United States sociologist and professor of sociology at Stanford University, defined six specific roles of a mentor. He announced mentors are advisors, supports, tutors, masters, and finally models. As advisors, mentors act as people with career experience willing to share their knowledge. As supporters, mentors are people who give emotional and moral encouragement. As tutors, they give specific feedback on your performance. They are masters in the sense of employers to whom students might be an apprentice. As sponsors, they are the sources of information and can assist in obtaining

opportunities. And ideally, they model the kind of person you can aspire to be as an academic scholar (Zelditch 1990). There is no question that mentoring is necessary and valued. Higher education administrators have applied these concepts to implement mentoring strategies to guide and support student academic success.

My review of the literature found no clear and consistent language regarding the role of an advisor. There are also disciplinary differences depending on the field of study, even allied fields which value mentorship and prioritize human development such as sociology, psychology, or education. Psychologists expect advisors to understand and attend to an individual's culture (Knox et al., 2013) producing a mutual learning environment in order to provide effective support. Alternatively, sociologists provide knowledgeable advice based on observations, ultimately delivering correcting information and inspiring change in a one directional process (Kurtz, 2007). In education, the term has no well-established consensus. Because there is no clear definition I am defining advising as the relationship designed to support student development towards goals within the context of higher education. This includes interactions within or outside of a classroom. Therefore, an advisor can be considered a mentor and the student receiving the mentorship will be referred to as a mentee or protégé. For the purposes of this study, academic advisor, advisor, and mentor are used interchangeably.

Assessment of Academic Advising

Scholars from other disciplines such as psychotherapy (Bordin, 1979; Horvath & Greenberg, 1989) and counseling supervision (Efstation et al., 1990) have attempted to grasp the effectiveness of dyadic relationships by creating instruments to assess and evaluate interactions. This quest ultimately resulted in the creation of the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI-S; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001), which was constructed and validated to better understand

the working relationship between a supervisor and supervisee in a counseling psychology doctoral program. A few years later the (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005) was developed as a self-report measure of advisors' perceptions of the working alliance. Essentially these tools were intended to measure how well each individual within the relationship believes they work together. With the development of these instruments, advisors and advisees were now able to reflect on their working relationship in a structured manner and, if desired, compare those results for insights of any potential differences.

Another noteworthy development when assessing a dyadic relationship was the creation of the Power Dynamics in Supervision Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018). This self-report instrument was designed to measure supervisees' perceptions of power within the supervisory relationship. This instrument provides insights into the power dynamics of a relationship when considering how supervisees perceive their magnitude of power in supervision sessions. The Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004), a theoretical framework which recognizes and examines assumptions including but not limited to race, gender, class, sexual orientation, and age, has also proved valuable when assessing evaluation of power and privilege within a relationship. Addressing and highlighting aspects of the Multicultural Feminist Model allows mentees to strive towards professional goals while remaining grounded in their value system and culture, not the culture of the mentor (Benishek et al., 2004), and ultimately establishes a more genuine and sincere advising experience.

For evaluating student success measures of academic advising in institutions of higher education, Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs) have been established to determine students' achievements (Powers et al., 2014). As student success is a primary goal of university advisors, failing to consider them as outcomes is detrimental to the results of an evaluation. Scholarship in

academia has typically referred to student success as graduation rate, completion rate, persistence, and/or retention. Any one or all of these indicators have been referred to as student success within scholarship of academia. When assessing student success at the institutional level graduation rate is “the number of students who graduate within 150% of the required timeframe, aggregated and calculated by area of discipline” (Moore, 2020, p. 28) and completion rate is the percentage of students who complete a degree at one particular school. Persistence is referred to as the number of “students who persist to graduation regardless of whether they graduate from the original school in which they enrolled” (Moore, 2020, p. 28). In this sense students who transfer to another school would still be considered within the institution’s rate of persistence. Retention is “the percentage of students who return to the same school year over year and graduate” (Moore, 2020, p. 28) from that same institution.

Advising programs that developed a learning-centered advising philosophy constructed specific learning objectives or goals for advising. These Student Learning Outcomes (SLO)s are the statements, which articulate what students are expected to cognitively know, behaviorally do, and affectively value as a result of their involvement in the academic advising experience (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2010; Campbell et al., 2005; Robbins, 2009; Robbins & Zarges, 2011). Cognitive SLOs focus on what the student knows (Powers et al., 2014). Examples include demonstrating student knowledge from advising experiences such as how to compute his/her GPA, the degree requirements of college and the department, department and college policies (including late withdrawal from courses, grade replacement, and late adding of courses), information about the academic majors available, how to schedule an advising appointment, where to locate resources on campus including tutoring, career services and financial assistance (Powers et al., 2014).

Behavioral SLOs focus on students demonstrating effective decision-making skills such as developing long-term plans to meet education goals, the use of an educational plan to manage progress toward degree completion, engagement with appropriate resources to meet individual need for academic success, interpreting a degree audit report for educational planning, preparing questions for an advising appointment, using online registration system to enroll in classes, and accessing academic advising in a timely manner (Powers et al., 2014). Alternatively, affective SLOs focus on a student's values and his/her ability to appreciate the benefits of general education requirements of a liberal education. These learning outcomes emphasize how personal values relate to life goals, how his/her academic major reflects personal interests, having a sense of ownership of one's educational experience, how academic advising has contributed to his or her educational experience, the role of internships as part of his/her undergraduate experience, and the importance of interacting with faculty members (Powers et al., 2014). For the purpose of this study these specific learning objectives or goals for advising students, Student Learning Outcomes (SLO)s, will be considered student success as a result of their involvement in the academic advising experience.

Considerations

This study focuses on specific Student Learning Outcomes (SLO) as a measure of success within an advising dyad. This newly developed SLO standard for academic advising has not previously been utilized in quantitative studies and, as such, may not adequately capture all the critical components that may impact a student's ability to achieve these advising expectations. These particular academic advising student learning outcomes, when compared to other more regularly studied student learning outcomes in scholarship of academia such as graduation rate, completion rate, persistence, and/or retention, offer little prior empirical research

in scholarship. However factors found important when predicting student outcomes include prior academic preparation, student self-efficacy, the perceived value of knowledge, and a sense of belonging (Brock, 2010; Demetriou & Schmitz-Seiborski, 2011; Tinto, 2012, 2017; Turner & Thompson, 2014). These elements are exemplified in academic advising (Christian & Sprinkle, 2013; Crocker et al., 2014; Moore, 2020) and could be contributed to in other manners such as peer mentorship. Students perform better academically and are more likely to persist in school when they have established a broad, well-connected network, and are able to make connections with others (Colvin & Ashman, 2010; Thomas, 2000). These connections could be fulfilled by a faculty advisor or in addition to other acquaintances throughout the course of their undergraduate education.

Frequency and consistency of academic advising have also been identified in scholarship as critical components of effectiveness when assessing student success, allowing the relationship to develop over time (Higgins, 2015; Mottarella et al., 2004). Additional support systems on campus, friends, informal or formal peer mentoring, student's self-concept, and student pre-mentoring preparation are all factors that could contribute to the extent faculty advising relationships impact Student Learning Outcomes. The college or university where advising is being delivered could also impact the ability for faculty advisors to influence SLOs including institutional selectivity, institutional philosophies of advising, and advising organizational structures that have been put into place for students by higher education administrators. Nonetheless, National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE) results consistently demonstrate students attending high-performing institutions are not more engaged in the university than typical students across all NSSE institutions and institutions with lower average engagement scores may have students who are engaged more than the typical student at a top-scoring

institution (NSSE, 2008). As such, each individual student's level of engagement in academic advising is unique regardless of the institution they are attending. In addition to the value of faculty advisors' contribution to student success, inconsistency of language, and confusion regarding the role of an academic advisor in institutions of higher education, several themes emerged in my review of the literature. These themes, which will be addressed in the Chapter 2 Literature Review sections that follows are power dynamics, diversity in professors as mentors, the benefits of a peer mentoring relationship, and finally assessment and evaluation of mentoring.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between and among advisory working alliance, power, culture, and student learning outcomes with a faculty advisor sample. This was accomplished by initially examining the dyadic relationship between faculty advisors and their advisees and student learning outcomes. Student Learning Outcomes as identified in the chapter above are: what students are expected to cognitively know, behaviorally do, and affectively value as a result of their involvement in the academic advising experience. I also examined the degree to which power dynamics and cultural consciousness influenced the relationship between working alliance and student learning outcomes. This was achieved utilizing the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005) and the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018). The Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) and Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014) were also used. This research study filled an important gap in the literature as there are no known previous studies examining the relationship between these constructs. Details regarding these instruments and frameworks are described more fully in the methods section. Reflecting on the previous

literature, I examined the relative influence of cultural consciousness and power on the relationship between a working alliance and student learning outcomes.

Research Questions

The research questions were:

- Is there a significant relationship between the working alliance of faculty advisors and undergraduate student advisees and student learning outcomes?
- To what extent, if any, do cultural consciousness and power influence the relationship between faculty advisors' working alliance with undergraduate student advisees and student learning outcomes?

Hypotheses

My hypotheses were that working alliance will be positively associated with student learning outcomes. As the level of working alliance increases between an undergraduate student and faculty advisor so too will the students' performance of learning outcomes. Based on my review of the literature, I also hypothesized that power and cultural consciousness would, collectively and independently, impact the relationship between a working alliance and student learning outcomes. Recognition and respect for power and cultural consciousness will have a positive effect on the relationship between an advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes. Finally, I hypothesized that, after incorporating cultural consciousness and power, advisory working alliance will have a greater impact on student learning outcomes. Higher levels of faculty advisors' self-perception of shared power and increased recognition of culture within the dyadic relationship with students would be associated with higher working alliance and student learning outcomes.

CHAPTER II

Literature Review

Chapter 1 describes the current condition of student advising on college campuses including the diverse approaches and inconsistent language regarding the role. Although it has been established that mentoring relationships can provide a variety of supports there is no established consensus and serious interchangeability of terms. Differences, within and among institutions and disciplines, serve as a challenge to assessing the effectiveness of advising services. Additionally, the fluid nature of relationships including multicultural diversity and power differences only add to the complexity.

The following literature review further explicates student advising in higher education. First is a discussion regarding the importance of identifying power dynamics within a dyadic mentoring relationship. Then reflections on the state of diversity among faculty when compared to the growing diverse student population are presented. Mentorship and mattering to the university as related to academic success and degree completion are considered. Finally, I will review the current state of assessment and evaluation of advising services.

Power Dynamic

While the overall literature has denoted mentoring relationships are beneficial, the mentorship process could be a negative experience for both mentor and protégé (Murrell et al., 1999). Acknowledging issues of power as a central challenge is essential in cultivating a productive mentoring relationship (Benishek et al., 2004; Fassinger, 2005). Although there are many exceptions, mentors tend to be in formal positions of power. In academic settings, this most commonly translates to professors mentoring students. In 2017 The National Center for Education Statistics reported 76% of postsecondary faculty members in the United States were

White with only 24% non-White faculty. The analysis of non-White includes faculty who identify as Black, Hispanic, Asian, Pacific Islander, American Indian, or Alaska Natives, as well as those of two or more races. Less than 20 percent (19%) of non-White faculty were fully tenured professors when compared to junior, without tenure assistant professors at (27%). Since the professoriate is relatively homogeneous with predominantly White male individuals (Davis, & Fry, 2019; Equity, Diversity, and Inclusion 2015; NCES, 2019; Office of Faculty Development and Diversity 2018; Patel, 2015; UCLA, 2015), faculty often find themselves mentoring protégés who have different demographic backgrounds, experiences, and interests.

Within a higher education institution, it is not uncommon to have a mentorship relationship with significant differences in age, race/ethnicity, expertise, gender, religious beliefs, culture, political views, sexual orientation, ability status, work experience and/or other lived experiences. The decolonial transnational feminist praxis was designed to highlight these differences with the objective of eroding the hierarchies of traditional mentor-mentee models. This approach is bi-directional, encourages continuous reflection, and is rooted in shared learning and mutual respect (Mullings & Mukherjee, 2018). The power dynamic is not ignored but rather recognized in order to eliminate distrust and foster a transformative environment where individuals may harness their potential. The decolonial transnational feminist praxis is an aspirational method to mentoring that requires trust and reflection by evaluating one's practice to facilitate challenge and change (Neville, 2015). Acknowledging, at a macro and microlevel, the influence of power dynamics while developing a holistic mentorship model to implement and sustain from both the perspective of the mentor and protégé is posited to establish a more productive relationship.

Implementing a model that directly addresses the power dynamics within the relationship will empower protégés from disenfranchised groups by facilitating the navigation through oppressive systems within institutions and will make mentorship a beneficial experience for both mentor and protégé. Reversing the perception that mentor-protégé differences are barriers rather than facilitators allows for a mutually advantageous relationship. Perceiving differences as facilitators allows both parties to engage in meaningful open dialogue rather than avoid important topics such as race, ethnicity, and power differences (Arczynski & Morrow, 2017). This discovery through dialogue empowers authenticity within the relationship. Conveying a vulnerable and authentic self will promote the development of an effective relationship where mentors and proteges successfully manage and learn. The literature in counseling psychology on professional supervisory relationships demonstrates that efforts to support and empower proteges from marginalized groups is a challenge. Mentors struggle to find mentoring models to adequately address power dynamics and models that acknowledge multicultural differences between mentor and protégé (Arczynski & Morrow, 2017). Inclusive mentoring relationships are critical for all fields of study and in all areas of practice however, they are especially essential in psychology and education fields that emphasize personal and human development, growth, and success.

Diversity

Although mentoring has also been associated with positive outcomes for ethnic minority groups (Linnehan 2001; Zimmerman et al., 2002), providing adequate mentoring with traditional models has fallen short for people from marginalized groups with multicultural identities. For example, mentoring relationships are a vital component for African American women students to achieve higher educational goals such as Masters and Ph.D. level degrees, however this

population finds it difficult to locate proper mentors to build a connection with (Grant & Simmons, 2008). One mentorship model does not fit all. The notion that a universally applicable mentorship model can be applied to any relationship has been rejected (Benishek et al., 2004). The traditional mentorship models stem from paternalistic systems and encompass a hierarchical and directive approach that have historically placed White men in positions of power, proving to be problematic for individuals with other identities (Colley, 2000). Twenty-first century students come from diverse backgrounds with varying degrees of resources available to them and as accessibility continues to increase so too does the diversity of student body. Unfortunately, higher education fails to assemble diverse faculty at the same rate (Davis & Fry, 2019) and continues to provide systematic disadvantage to students outside the white and affluent population.

When referencing white supremacy in the United States, Alexander (2020) identifies how for centuries the divide, demonize, and conquer tactics have been utilized with an attempt to preserve the racial hierarchy. He argues these politics of “Trumpism” are as old as the nation itself. Institutions of higher education are no different. Whites are not only entering colleges and institutions at higher rates than other minority groups but are also consistently graduating at higher rates than people of color including Blacks, Pacific Islander, or American Indian/Alaska Native (NCES, 2019). This has occurred in spite of special attention to increase graduation rates of underrepresented students (Brady-Amoon & Fuertes, 2011; Kirp, 2019). A student’s ability to feel heard, understood, and build rapport with a mentor on campus could tip the scale to feelings of connectedness to a university with unresolved systematic oppressive practices. The Culturally Engaging Campus Environments (CECE) model theorizes that undergraduate students who are exposed to culturally engaging campus activities are more likely to experience a sense of

belonging, have more positive academic outlooks, higher levels of academic performance, and are more likely to persist to graduation (Museus, 2014).

Student connectedness is associated with academic success, engaging in research, and other activities that foster professional development (Hughes & Fahy, 2009). Exposure to undergraduate research experience maybe a direct pipeline to graduate schools (Hall & Allard, 2009). More diverse faculty to role-model and engage in research study opportunities will assist with the effort to address the multicultural aspects of mentoring. The research demonstrates instrumental benefits for proteges and mentors (Burgstahler & Cronheim, 2001; Fries-Britt & Kelly-Turner, 2005; Hansen & Matthews, 2002) and identifies mentors as especially crucial to the success of students of color. Value systems, ethnicity, cultural, and behavioral patterns of people of color oftentimes conflict with those held by the university contributing to feelings of exclusion for people of color within academia. This is especially true in Predominantly White Institutions (PWI) where there is scarcity of students and faculty of color making it exceptionally difficult to feel connected to the department and ultimately the institution as a whole. The literature discusses several factors for students feeling connected to the university including negative labels, faculty attitudes, institutional commitment, institutional climate, academic support services, and mentoring (Turner & Myers, 2000). Identifying individuals on campus who share cultural and values systems can support academic success. Because of the scarcity of people of color, peer-mentoring programs are particularly beneficial to this population. In addition, Benishek et al. (2004) infused Fassinger's feminist mentorship model (1997) with multicultural principles to create the Multicultural Feminist Model of Mentoring (MFM). This acknowledgement and exploration of differences was designed to promote a more equitable and authentic mentoring relationship.

In both the feminist mentorship model and the multicultural feminist model of mentoring the power dynamics are not denied or ignored but rather fully explored. Aspects of the institution reflect mainstream values including sexism, racism, heterosexism, and classism. A shared evaluation of privilege and power within the environment, and within the relationship, develops a mutually beneficial relationship as both mentor and protégé are able to become more authentically involved and develop a mutual respect. These conversations are expected to involve discussions including elements of diversity such as race, gender, sexual orientation, and age. As a result of this, the protégé feels competent to fully participate in the relationship, which has the potential to facilitate higher skill level (Benishek et al., 2004). As an emphasis for clarity, neither model suggests striving for mentor and protégé to share equal power. This was identified by scholarship as impossible to attain and striving for the unattainable is counterproductive. An attempt to diminish irrefutable power differences fosters an atmosphere of denial and enables oppression to prevail.

Beyond conveying professional advice and opportunities, customizing mentoring to protégés' career goals (Chan et al., 2015) and providing personal life connections with professional life (Okubo, 2012) are also essential to a successful mentoring relationship. Having a role model that looks like you and that you aspire to be like when planning future educational and professional goals requires more diverse faculty in race, social class, sexual orientation, ability/disability, and diversity in research to provide personal and professional commonalities. Having such representation in faculty is rare (Hall & Allard, 2009), so the limited racially minoritized professors end up carrying unfair burden of service including disproportionately distributed tasks in support of students from their own racial or ethnic group, leadership roles in diversity efforts, and affirmative action responsibilities, which can ultimately jeopardize their

own professional and career advancement (Durodoye et al., 2019; Pololi et al., 2010; Turner et al., 1999). Institutional policies in higher education have systematically developed advantages for White and affluent students while disadvantaging minority groups. Intuitively, providing diversity in professors to mentor students from disenfranchised groups on how to navigate oppressive systems within institutions seems to be a logical conclusion for combating these trends and ultimately tipping the scale for student success.

On the contrary, research focusing on mentors shows no benefits of race/ethnic matching to outcomes of the relationship across a variety of approaches. A meta-analysis studying three frequently used variables in counseling psychology for client and therapist racial/ethnic matching including preference of ones' own race/ethnicity, perceptions when considering race/ethnicity, and finally outcomes of the relationship found clients prefer a mentor from one's own race/ethnicity and they perceive mentors of their own race and ethnicity more positively than other mentors. Nonetheless outcomes of the relationship indicated almost no benefits from racial and ethnic matching (Cabral & Smith, 2011). The results indicate a preference for and positively perceiving ethnic matching but no benefits. Regardless of these conclusions, college students still want mentors who culturally and ethnically understand them.

When college students were asked to indicate their preference for culturally related mentoring, they favored having a mentor with multicultural training and experience. Of subsequent importance was having a mentor that can implement culturally adapted treatments, then racial/ethnic matching, and finally racial/ethnic minority pairing (Swift et al., 2015). Race/ethnic matching was defined as a desire to work with a mentor whose race/ethnicity matches their own and race/ethnic minority pairing was considered working with a mentor who is also a member of a racial/ethnic minority group but not the same as their own. Further analysis

found that participants were willing to make significant sacrifices of effectiveness to receive any one of these culturally related practices.

Empirical research analyzing decision-making and occupational choice for women or racial minorities observed cadets in the Army's occupational preference was impacted by gender/race matching. Respondents in the study were more likely to select their mentor officer's branch as a professional goal of future attainment when their mentor shared the same gender/race (Kofoed & McGovney, 2019). Cross cultural understanding, length of time spent in the mentoring relationship, and shared language are additional factors identified in the literature with having the most significant impact on mentoring relationships (Peterson, 2016). Higher education continues to increase its accessibility and develop a growing diverse student population yet fails to establish advising programs that meet the needs of these students (Filson & Whittington, 2013; Leach & Wang, 2015; Mottarella et al., 2004; Tinto, 2015; Turner & Thompson, 2014). Administrators and university constituents can support students from disenfranchised groups by offering appropriate training to individuals on campus including faculty members.

Mentorship and Mattering

Implementing programs on campus that align with empirical evidence and promote student development include emphasis on six main themes. These themes are performance skills, negotiating of transition supports and barriers, translation of goals into actions, interest and goal linkages, interest development, and formation of self-efficacy and outcomes beliefs (Lent et al., 1999). These personal practices must be adopted and implemented by the student for promoting self-development however can be facilitated by a mentor. Students' psychological beliefs and their connectedness to the institution impact their behaviors, and ultimately their academic

success. Facilitating this process can be accomplished through student mentorship within institutions of higher education. Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy theory posits that an individual's psychological practices can alter both the level and strength of self-efficacy.

Persistence and mastery of activities through experience increase one's self-efficacy and reduces defensive behavior. The expectations of efficacy, such as the belief that you can be successful, determines which coping behaviors you will employ, how much effort you will put forth, and most importantly the duration of time you will continue to work to address an obstacle or aversive experience. There are four main principles that drive each individual person's personal efficacy: their past performance and accomplishments, their past experiences, verbal encouragement, and finally their current physical state (Bandura, 1977, 1997). What we see as our past experience, what we have done and accomplished for ourselves, and our current physical state are all very solid factual pieces of information that contribute to self-efficacy. The only other principal construct that influences our self-efficacy and alters our behavior directly impacting the amount of work we're willing to put forward, is verbal encouragement. This relationship between perceived self-efficacy and behavioral changes highlights the importance of a mentor's verbal encouragement. Bandura's theory is so embedded in the literature that scholars cannot discuss human behavior without acknowledging his contribution.

Behavioral research in academia and vocations mainly focuses on performance, persistence, choice, and interests. College self-efficacy is also significantly associated with college satisfaction (DeWitz & Walsh, 2002) adjustment, and performance (Brady-Amoon & Fuertes, 2011). Another one of Bandura's theories viewed as a framework when discussing viable components of mentoring is Bandura's (1977) social learning theory focusing on learning from the environment both directly and indirectly. An example of directly learning from the

environment is learning from personal experience and indirectly learning from the environment would be learning by observing the model behaviors of others (Bandura & Walters, 1977).

The self-efficacy theory and social cognitive theory were applied to career development by Lent, Brown, and Hackett (1994) who adapted Bandura's work to develop the social cognitive career theory (SCCT). As a framework, SCCT has been used to understand how individuals select academic and career choice options, performance, and persistence in educational and occupational objectives. It has also been used to better understand the formulation of career-relevant interest. As higher education is an early process of career development; self-efficacy, expected outcomes, goal structures, support systems, and experiential learning were all considered when developing the social cognitive career theory (Lent et al., 1994). The literature on both theories, self-efficacy and SCCT, is extensive.

A more recent study found transformational learning is significantly related to emotional intelligence when considering specific personality factors such as agreeableness and openness. Transformational learning impacts an individual's ability to accurately perceive, express, understand, and manage emotions (Taylor et al., 2009). This highlights the scope of the transformational development and increased learning opportunities for students. The effectiveness of learning outside of a formal setting is intriguing for higher education constituents considering classroom curriculum and student support services. Utilizing the transformational learning theory can be cultivated both within and outside the structure provided by an educational program (Mezirow, 2000; Preston et al., 2014) and could be stimulated by positive peer mentoring systems.

Peer Mentoring

However, beneficial peer relationships, including peer mentorship roles, do not diminish the existence of a power dynamic. There must be a willingness to grant authority, a willingness to take on and exercise authority, and a context of friendliness and kindness. In the absence of these three ingredients, there cannot be a successful autonomous collaboration. These three ingredients are essential and without them peer collaboration fails (Bruffee, 1994). Additional issues of peer mentoring include deciding on limits of personal disclosure and intimacy levels and reservations or openness. These variables become more of an equal intercession and must be done in order to determine the degree of confidant. This process is less a structured set of boundaries decided by social norms of power and more a negotiation of boundaries, which creates a new struggle with collaborative peer learning. Questions of expertise, experience, and power complicate risk the relationship of peer mentoring (Smith, 2007).

As with any relationship, cognitively setting appropriate boundaries for oneself is paramount. Equally important is being sensitive to, appreciating, and abiding by someone else's boundaries. Every individual performs to their best ability employing different approaches. They may need isolation to study, complete an assignment, or large project while others like to collaborate and discuss every step of the way. Evidence of how different personalities work differently has been emphasized by John L. Holland's (1959) RIASEC theory of vocational personalities and work environments. The RIASEC interest assessment's frequent implementation in practice (Nauta, 2010) also supports this point. Developing a balance where both individuals are comfortable and able to provide their best quality work will prove to be the most effective strategy. A continual conversation with dialogue can help encourage increased effort and provide a complete shift in worldviews.

Transformational learning theory suggests deep meaningful learning is fostered by reflection, peer dialogue, and perspective shifts (Mezirow, 2000). Brazilian educator Paolo Freire (1970) identified how regular practice of transformational learning, including analytic reflection, can lead to the highest expression of one's potential. Peer relationships create a transformational learning environment that facilitate the communication of feelings, thoughts, and past actions (Carter, 2002; Taylor, 2009). To illustrate, a qualitative study of six midcareer women found that women's developmental relationships are created and sustained largely through talking. These women experienced instrumental, performance-based, and transformative learning simply through talking (Carter, 2002). This process of learning is identified as a change in consciousness. The emphasis is on change whether gradual or sudden, in a structured educational environment or throughout the experience of life itself. You are transformed through learning in ways that are clearly recognized by others and yourself (Clark, 1993). The process of talking and specifically the transformative learning experience results in a change in perception of worldviews and significantly modifies beliefs, attitudes, and values.

Allowing a more organic and natural learning process maybe the most beneficial for the relationship. Ultimately, and with consideration to the risks, both individuals in the peer mentoring relationship experience benefits ranging from individual gains to becoming more connected to the college campus as a whole. Peer mentoring impacts student's experience on college campus and success within higher education. As such the topic cannot be neglected within this conversation. Relationships with peers, either the lack there of or supplemental to academic advising, could impact faculty advisor's ability to influence student success. There are different perspectives by students, instructors, and mentors about the role of a mentor and how

that role should be enacted so assumptions of a universal understanding of mentorship cannot be made.

Academic Success and Degree Completion

Elder, Millea, Molina, and Wills' (2018) analysis of longitudinal student-level data at one midsized university in the southeastern United States from 1998 to 2004 identified several factors that improve student persistence and performance. These factors include gratitude and grateful coping strategies. The ability to appreciate and having a positive attitude impacts a student's persistence and performance rates. Similarly, Modfidi, Amani, and Brown (2014) examined student success measured by GPA and college persistence factors. Social and parental support, healthier choices with decreased drinking/smoking, positive coping strategies were also found to effect academic performance (DeBerard et al., 2004). Factors such as gratitude, grateful coping strategies, making healthier choices, and positive coping strategies can all be guided by mentoring. Mentorship coupled with social and parental support ultimately affects academic performance, retention, and college persistence (Curtin et al., 2013).

Slanger, Berg, Fisk, and Hanson (2015) utilized a ten-year College Student Inventory (CSI) data set to analyze motivational factors that impact students' success as measured by GPA and retention. Their results found educational stress, and predicted academic difficulty were all highly predictive of retention. A sense of belonging has also been identified by researchers as a strong predictor of academic success and degree completion (Curtin et al., 2013). An advisor is usually the path to that belongingness as they facilitate integration into academic departments and programs (Curtin et al., 2013). An advisor can be considered the most important factor in student success (Bloom et al., 2007) as protégés perceive demonstrated care, role modelling in professional and personal matters, and individually tailored guidance to be among the most

helpful mentor characteristics (Bloom et al., 2007). This support is most powerful among first generation students of color who might lack cultural capital to navigate academia to the extent of their more privileged peers.

Sociologists Rosenberg and McCullough (1981) originally identified mattering as an influential component that impacts an individual's self-concept. The notion was applied to students in a college setting by Schlossberg in 1989. Schlossberg's study and research since then has found that students who believe they do not matter to their college may experience greater academic stress levels and increased dropout rates (Brandy et al., 2015; Flett et al., 2019; Hayter, 2015; Marshall, 2001; Schlossberg, 1989; Strayhorn, 2018). Admission into a higher education institution is ineffectual without retention and subsequent success in degree completion.

Even with graduation being the fundamental objective, in the past twenty years over thirty-one million individuals earned some college credit however left college without any post-secondary credentials (Fishman, 2014). This phenomenon has led scholars to question the reasoning behind students' inability to persist and policies to improve retention have escalated as a top objective among university constituents (Neville, 2017). There has even been an academic journal dedicated to the subject, *The Journal of College Student Retention: Research, Theory & Practice*. However even with such dedication to the topic, there are many concerns. Nationally, one in four college students do not return to school after their first year (Astin et al., 2012; Arizona State University, 2005) with many of them leaving before entering their second semester of undergraduate education (Cretzmeyer, 2003; Sand et al., 2005). Over 20 million students are enrolled in degree seeking programs (Tinto, 2012) yet only about 50% of students attending college directly from high school successfully complete their degree (Astin et al., 2012; Baum et al., 2013; Brock, 2010; Kirp, 2019; Kuh et al., 2005; NCES, 2005; Sharkin, 2004; Turner &

Thompson, 2014) with White students consistently graduating at higher rates than people of color including Black students, Pacific Islander students, or American Indian/Alaska Native students. Despite attempts to increase graduation rates with special attention to underrepresented students (Brady-Amoon & Fuertes, 2011; Kirp, 2019) this trend has held steady since the 1996 starting cohort of students and still holds true for the 2012 starting cohort, representing data on the graduating class of 2016 (NCES, 2019). These devastating findings have led researchers to question the student experience, identifying their early years of undergraduate education as the most stressful and found to have the least percentage of student persistence (Misra et al., 2000). First-year college students are often tackling a number of life adjustments, including being away from loved ones, depression, isolation, searching for independence, building a new social support network, making life-altering decisions, and academic stress (Feldman, 2005; MacLennan & Dies, 1992; Reischl & Hirsch, 1989; Sand et al., 2005), all of which can add to the difficulty of starting college and pursuing a degree. The critical reality of student dropout rates has increased researchers' interest in constructs impacting student academic stress levels.

Ragheb and McKinney (1993) defined perceived academic stress as performing assignments under tight time and deadlines, having an unreasonable load of projects and exams such as having several assignments due at once, not completing academic assignments on time, expecting to be able to complete several tasks, and difficulty dealing with instructors (1993). Another concept that directly affects both academic success and academic stress is self-consciousness which has been linked to a student's academic capabilities (Sand et al., 2005). To combat increasing dropout rates, Dwyer and Cummings (2001) found that developing a social support system in college may help first-year college students manage academic stress. Social support systems are also directly related to a student's mattering experience (Brandy et al., 2015;

Flett et al., 2019; Hayter, 2015; Marshall, 2001; Strayhorn, 2018; Schlossberg, 1989;). Students who have a sense of mattering to their college have stronger social support systems and lower levels of academic stress.

Misconception concerning academic stress among college students was identified when comparing faculty and student perceptions. There is considerable mismatch between faculty and students in their perceptions of students' stressors and reactions to stressors. Faculty members perceive students to experience a higher level of stress than students identified having and faculty perceived displayed reactions to stressors more frequently than students themselves identify (Misra et al., 2000). The researchers also identify female students experiencing more academic stress than male students and encourage gender specific interventions (Rayle & Chung, 2007; Misra et al., 2000; Michie et al., 2001).

To better understand the relationship between mattering to the college and academic stress Rayle and Chung (2007) examined first-year college students' social support, academic stress, and the mattering experience. Mattering to the college was found to be the most powerful predictor of academic stress levels. Mattering to the university and establishing a sense of belonging on campus has significantly increased its necessity as the mental health of college students continues to decline. Literature in counseling psychology has emphasized the intensifying problem, of both quantity and severity, of the college students' mental health for over two decades (Benton et al., 2003; Bishop, 1990; Kiracofe, 1993; Mowbrary et al., 2006; O'Malley et al., 1990; Stone & Archer, 1990). Moreover, high-profile suicides highlighted in media and university administrators revealing that serious mental illness has risen significantly on college campuses (Mowbray et al., 2006) demonstrate the importance of social support systems.

Students' mental well-being has been steadily declining and became devastated by coronavirus-related stress in 2020 with increased suicidal ideation, anxiety, and depression related to the pandemic (TimelyMD, 2020). Eighty five percent of college students say they continue to experience increased stress and/or anxiety as a result of COVID-19, 72% of students feel uncertainty about the future of their education, and 61% fear falling behind in their coursework (TimelyMD, 2020), which only adds to an already growing crisis. These findings are valuable to institutions and individuals eager to implement research-informed programs in institutions of higher education with the goal of reducing students' academic stress, promoting social support, and increasing experiences of mattering with the goal of decreased student dropout rates.

Assessment and Evaluation

Overall, the research shows academic advising plays an essential role in student retention (Bloom et al., 2007; Curtin et al., 2013; King, 1993). Student retention as a long-standing problem has provoked recommendations by early researchers to continue attentiveness to advisement as well as investigating and implementing other student support services. In an effort to significantly increase graduation rates, institutions focused their efforts on implementing advising services. Many universities appointed faculty with the role, others hired professional advisors, and some universities employed both to facilitate degree completion (National Academic Advising Association; NACADA, 2011). Academic advising has been identified as one of the key components within higher education to directly impact student development, however, a rising concern has been the limited assessment of academic advising programs across the nation (He & Hutson, 2016). Because the function of advising is delivered by people in different roles with various degrees of training and support, the question is, how do we

effectively evaluate what works best? Developing and utilizing new programs warrants evaluating the effectiveness of these newly implemented strategies.

There has been an inadequate amount of assessments implemented to facilitate more effective unified advising methods. The few assessments that have been developed are mostly student satisfaction surveys (Habley, 2004; Macaruso, 2007; Powers et al., 2014). For decades, there has been a cry from scholars to produce more research on academic advising. As far back as thirty-two years ago, a shocking 6 out of 10 institutions reported not systematically evaluating their advising services (Habley, 1988). More recently, a study published in the National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) journal by Powers et al. (2014) reiterated the lack of research regarding assessment practices of academic advising. Identifying the need for student support services and implementing it through academic advising has been a constructive progression in developing a holistic approach to student success. Although without proper evaluation, there is little indication to determine new strategies for improvement or in determining effectiveness.

There is currently little empirical evidence to indicate what works and what doesn't within a dyadic advising relationship. Another problem when considering evaluation of academic advising has been the factors that are considered and how they are operationalized in evaluations of effectiveness. Previous literature has lacked the ability to solidify specific mentoring strategies as effectual when compared to other less successful techniques. The assessment processes of academic advising requires multiple measures to produce useful holistic information and incorporating the multidimensional characteristics of learning is essential to effective assessment of academic advising (Campbell, 2005; Huba & Freed, 2000; Maki, 2004; Palomba, 2002; Suskie, 2009). Historically, scholars have looked to student satisfaction surveys to conclude

effectiveness (Braun & Zolfagharian, 2016; Broadbridge, 1996; Hamed et al., 2015) and found students perceived demonstrated care for students, accessibility, role models in professional and personal matters, individually tailored guidance, and proactive integration of students into the profession as the five major characteristics most helpful by an advisor (Bloom et al., 2007).

While looking through the lens of students offers valuable information, when considering the relationship between advisor and student, much is left unexplored regarding effectiveness. Moreover, as a whole, these studies found positive, negative, or no associations between participants' satisfaction and perceived effectiveness making the relationship inconclusive (Bitner et al., 1997; Mills & Morris, 1986; Roter, 1977; Wu, 2011).

The research offers little regarding outcomes when considering academic advising services, particularly in terms of persistence and graduation. This holds true for the evaluation and assessment of both individual advisement and advising programs. More thorough assessment of advising must be accomplished to better understand and develop academic advising services. Relying solely on student evaluations can be problematic as they may reflect possible student biases and considerable mismatch between faculty and students in their perceptions (Misra et al., 2000). Furthermore, students often have limited understanding of the abstract concepts of advising and lack the ability to measure the full scope of the advising process (McClellan, 2011; Robbins, 2009; Robbins & Adams, 2013; Robbins & Zarges, 2011). Researchers found gaps in student perceptions and expectations of the behaviors, relationship, and advising process when compared to how faculty members defined their advising role (Anderson et al., 2014). Additionally, student satisfaction surveys may be unrealistic. Students may have uninformed expectations of an advisor or lack the ability to capture long-term outcomes (Creamer & Scott, 2000).

A recent national study conducted by Powers et al. (2014) found that 80% of academic advising program assessment practices in the United States are associated with student learning outcomes but only half used these measures to assess outcomes and many still relied exclusively on student surveys. The Student Learning Outcomes developed as a standard by collecting and compiling aspects from The National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) Guide to Assessment in Academic Advising (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2010), the Assessment of Academic Advising Institute incorporated within the NACADA Clearinghouse (Martin, 2007), and sample academic advising syllabi (NACADA, 2011). The 21 items focusing on Student Learning Outcomes (SLO) were split into three categories: cognitive, behavioral, and affective outcomes with the objective of establishing desirable development goals (Powers et al., 2014). Utilizing student learning outcomes as a standard benchmark for success is advantageous. Advisement assessment practices that fail to incorporate these measures result in a disconnect between desired outcome and what is concluded as effective.

One study focusing on the use of Student Learning Outcomes (SLO) within assessment practices in institutions of higher education utilized a newly developed Survey on Assessment of Academic Advising. A survey was distributed to individuals conducting or responsible for academic advising assessments at the university level (Keith et al., 2014). Out of the sample population, 80% of participants identified academic advising SLOs as the objective, however only half assessed the achievement of those outcomes using SLOs as the measure. Of those that assessed achievement, most utilized student surveys. Only 7% of the participants reported utilizing three or more SLO measures; however, a whopping 60% reported improvements of practice and improvements of student learning based on these assessments (Keith et al., 2014). Student Learning Outcomes can be a beneficial measure for assessment however assessment

personnel are rarely utilizing them. Furthermore, the participants who volunteered to take part in this study were found through their NACADA membership, generally comprised of professional advisors, so this noteworthy study lacked substantial input from faculty or professor advisors.

A demand for assessments beyond student satisfaction continues to increase (McClellan, 2011; Taras, 2007). Gaining a better understanding of effectiveness in academic advising will facilitate the implementation of more effective strategies. The field of academic advising offers no clear unified concepts in regard to the main objectives, outcomes, or purposes of the service. And although the Council for the Advancement of Standards in Higher Education (CAS) developed a module on general advising practice standards for institutional review (CAS, 2015), there continues to be significant variations of objects, outcomes, and purposes among individuals performing the service across institutions and disciplines. This ambiguity makes it difficult to assess or evaluate services that provide academic advising. In addition, there is no consensus for a theoretical approach to advising and there is significant variability in how advising is being implemented (Benishek et al., 2004). All of these incongruities become problematic when assessing the effectiveness of advising.

Robbins (2010) defined evaluation as focusing on an individual academic advisor's performance and an assessment as a broader focus on the academic advising program and overall services. The primary objective of assessing advisement would be to evaluate an individual's or group's objectives. While performing an assessment we may evaluate an individual academic advisor (Robbins, 2010; Robbins & Zarges, 2011). Because an evaluation is commonly sporadic and focuses on an individual advisor, whereas an assessment is conducted at the program level and as a continuous process, this has led to the belief that although evaluation is helpful, ongoing assessment at the program level yields higher level results. Currently an evaluation alone still

leaves much unknown, however with the development of universal concepts of objectives, outcomes, and purposes, more frequent evaluation can be applied across departments, universities, and disciplines. This would be especially valuable for individual faculty advisors at the dyadic level as their experiences have seldom been included when addressing academic advising in institutions of higher education.

Faculty insight would offer a unique contribution to the literature on the effectiveness of academic advising. Regardless of whether an evaluation or an assessment is performed, the main objective is to measure “specific phenomena” outcomes of academic advising. The measures of outcome can either be student learning or the measure could be the form of process/delivery (Robbins, 2012). Now that we have a better understanding of the differences between an evaluation and an assessment, we can effectively determine outcomes of academic advising, right? Unfortunately, it’s not that easy.

We now know that many different professionals with different titles perform the same “advisor” role. We also understand that no two people are the same especially when considering different circumstances such as mental or physical health issues, students dealing with an emotional crisis, students returning from academic probation or dismissal, LGBT students, military veterans, international students, pre-professional students, racial/ethnic minority students, or adult students, and the list goes on. It would be peculiar to have two advising interactions be identical since each individual student experiencing different circumstances has different needs. Fully appreciating the diversity among students will highlight the capacity at which each individual academic advising interaction is unique (Robbins, 2012). This draws a clear picture of how many factors can contribute to academic advising and emphasizes how no

two interactions can be the same. The question still remains, with all of this variability, how can we comprehensively evaluate academic advising?

Professionalization

Another obstacle the field of advising faces is its lack of cohesive acceptance, as many do not consider it a profession. Kuhn and Padak (2008) reflected on the function of an advisor and whether it can be considered a field, an academic discipline, or just a faculty responsibility (Habley, 2009). After extensive consideration and discussion, scholars have found there is no clear agreed upon purpose. What is most disheartening is that not even university stakeholders such as faculty, staff, students, and even advisors themselves fully understand the role of an advisor (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2015; Colvin & Ashman, 2010; Habley, 2009; Himes, 2014; Kuhn et al., 2006; Kuhn & Padak, 2008; McGill, 2013; McGill & Nutt, 2016; Shaffer et al., 2010;). McGill (2017) states that “There is little consensus on what advising is or ought to be” (p. 6). Studies gathering data from individuals responsible for advising to address research questions: “How do advisors describe the occupation of advising?” and “How do advisors describe a profession?” found different perspectives about the role (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2015). In this fragmented state, it becomes even more imperative to develop a sound systematic evaluation technique to solidify this academic responsibility as a profession once and for all. Recognition of the role, function, processes, and outcomes, both generally and specifically much like the way teaching and research transcend different roles could also serve to highlight the importance of advisement while opening doors for improvements.

What it is or Ought to be

The discussion about advising is also challenging as it continues to lack a coherent unifying definition. Crookston (2009/1972/1994) first developed the idea that “advising is

teaching”, however in more recent years, the advising community has made efforts to eradicate that concept. Crookston’s main purpose was to clarify the function of advising, ironically today scholars feel that analogy only muddies the essence of the role (Schulenberg & Lindhorst, 2008). Advising has been considered counseling, encouraging, learning, educating, advocating, and mentoring (e.g, Hemwall & Trachte, 2005; Lowenstein, 2005; Melander, 2005; Rawlins & Rawlins, 2005). Today, the field continues to search for an identity. In 1981, Trombley and Holmes expressed concerns of marginality for the field and today more than ever that concern lingers. Despite research results I’ve outlined earlier, the effects of increasing budget cuts and the requirement for higher education departments to share resources has the potential to effect advising more deeply because of its inability to demonstrate tangible outcomes to higher education administrators and other constituents. Without providing the impact and effectiveness of advising to stakeholders, the field continues to be at risk (McFarlane & Thomas, 2016). In order to break out of professional marginality, a solid evaluation strategy must be developed.

Information could be gathered through indirect or direct measures to determine the effectiveness of academic advising. Recalling of events, reporting an opinion, perceptions or beliefs would be considered indirect modes of measurement and are primarily collected by surveys. Students’ perceived performance of the individual advisor or how students rate their advising experience are also forms of indirect measurements. Examples of direct measures include empirical and firsthand observations. These could be in the mode of quiz responses of knowledge (Robbins, 2016). Exact definitions of academic advising differ slightly; however, researchers generally agree that the function includes an intentional interaction between university employees and students to support students’ growth and success (Kuhn, 2008; NACADA, 2006). The construct of gaining insight through relationally oriented individual and

group interactions that build on rapport and evaluating the extent of benefits acquired from that relationship are exceedingly unique and, as such, can only be determined by primary responses from the individuals involved. He and Hutson (2016) consider the goal of assessing academic advising as identifying factors associated with the experiences that impact students' performance. To come to this conclusion they analyzed quantitative data based on attendance, GPAs, and both student and advisor surveys to identify factors impacting students. However, their research focused only on international students and lacks generalizability. To remedy this, we may consider extending the study's generalizability by examining similar data with different populations.

Theoretical Approaches to Practice Models

Four major approaches most utilized with academic advising have been identified as intrusive advising, appreciative advising, prescriptive advising and developmental advising (Drake et al., 2013). The intrusive advising approach is proactive and intervention-based, focused on preventing potential problems and providing support with academic challenges. It concentrates mainly on targeted student populations. The core objective includes intervening by identifying specific student groups with known challenges, helping students overcome obstacles by starting early, and developing a relationship with the students. This approach is seen as invasive and personal when compared to other strictly professional approaches. The advisor is viewed as a liaison to the institution, providing a connection to the larger network of educational and community leaders, and creating opportunities that effectively contribute to positive outcomes (Peterson, 2016). Frequent communication and scheduling calendar follow-ups regularly are expected while advising students. This approach has proven to be successful in promoting retention efforts with at risk students (Davis, 2015; Vander Schee, 2007) including a

specific study that examined advisement at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCU) in Georgia. The study evaluated intrusive advising specifically with low achieving students and demonstrated this particular advisement approach increased students' overall disposition vis-à-vis education and increased GPA (Davis, 2015)

Another popular advising approach utilized by professionals is the appreciative advising approach, also referred to as the strengths-based approach, which specially identifies students' talents and affirms those talents in order to apply strengths to challenges. It involves individualized planning of steps and consists of envisioning and working towards the future (Schreiner, 2013). Appreciative advising is a learning-focused design and provides a straightforward framework for advisors with teaching experience and faculty advisors (He & Hutson, 2016). Although the literature on advising referenced an assortment of approaches, my review of the literature has found that prescriptive and developmental approaches dominate the field (Barbuto et al., 2011; Crookston, 2009/1972/1994; King, 2005; Williams, 2007).

The prescriptive advising approach focuses on institution-specific information including class scheduling, registration, course selections, appealing policies, explanation of degree curricula, and graduation processes (Drake, 2011). This information based advising approach views the session as a one-way process. The student is mostly passively receiving descriptions or procedural knowledge regarding the institution they are enrolled in. The advisors are perceived as experts on topics such as program requirements, course sequence, and institutional policy and procedures. The main concept behind prescriptive advising involves advising-as-teaching-and-learning position. This approach typically does not promote a special relationship between advisor and student (Barbuto et al., 2011). One major weakness professionals have found while utilizing the prescriptive approach is that it does not lend itself to individualized decision making

and lacks student focused information (Drake et al., 2013). Much of what is being shared during an advising session utilizing the prescriptive advising approach could be added to an online webpage that includes modules to explain information. The students are expected to listen and follow the instruction of an advisor, quite contradictory to the developmental approach, which focuses on the student and his/her specific needs.

The developmental advising approach employs a more systematic process encompassing a collaborative effort across both academic and student affairs. The objective is to support student achievement in educational, career, and personal goals by utilizing both institutional and community resources. This advising approach is implemented to enrich the students' quality of life beyond cognitive factors by developing a student-advisor relationship. The developmental approach focuses on the student and his/her specific needs. Advisors utilizing the developmental approach view the student more holistically, considering the whole student and addressing every aspect of a student's life, rather than focusing merely on delivering degree acquisition information (Drake, 2011). The specific aim of a developmental approach is well-rounded student growth in addition to degree completion. Several developmental theories are considered to be consistent with the developmental approach, specifically ones related to cognitive, career, personal, and psychosocial advancement. Advisors focus their efforts on creating self-awareness, problem solving, goal setting, decision making, and other areas to facilitate academic success (Williams, 2007).

Crookston identified contrasting dimensions to both prescriptive and developmental approaches to advising. Utilizing the prescriptive approach, the advisor has control, takes responsibility and initiative on fulfilling requirements (Crookston, 2009/1972/1994). Alternatively, the developmental approach focuses on potentialities and views students as

growing, maturing, responsible, and capable of self-direction. All aspects of the relationship are negotiated depending on an agreement (Crookston, 2009/1972/1994). Prescriptive advising boils down to paperwork and developmental advising concentrates on intellectual, moral, and psychosocial development. However seemingly divergent, these two approaches have been found in the literature as the most effective practices (Barbuto et al., 2011; Crookston, 2009/1972/1994; King, 2005; Williams, 2007). A combination with a significant amount of overlap occurring simultaneously may produce the most successful results. The prescriptive advisement approach can be a foundation to developmental advisement since students without accurate information cannot succeed.

Whilst developing this holistic relationship, and similar to the discussion on peer mentoring relationships, appropriate boundaries are important to consider. It is easy to develop a heightened level of respect and admiration for professors since there is an innate power difference. Although it is acceptable to admire and respect a professor's work and commitment to his or her research, staying true to your own values and continuing to check your moral compass rather than rely solely on his or her suggestions remains paramount. If boundaries are not regularly checked and maintained from both ends, relationships with professors can easily turn from beneficial and productive to sticky and murky. There are numerous court cases of faculty not acting morally and ethically, but one court case highlights the vague and blurred professional boundaries that can be crossed. The court case Sun et al v. Xu illustrates just how faculty can abuse power and authority. In this case, an associate professor and head of the Department of East Asian Languages and Culture (EALC) at the University of Illinois Urbana-Champaign (UIUC) violated many social, moral, and legal boundaries. The case quotes

He raped multiple students, had sexual relationships with many others, and tried to sexually exploit even more. He physically assaulted women. He played brutal mind games, pitting his students against each other and against other professors, achieving pleasure out of the debris he left in his wake. He earned hundreds of thousands of dollars off the work that his students did for him, while paying them nothing. He let his teaching duties slide, showing up unprepared and distracted, quick to anger when anyone questioned him (Sun et al v. Xu, 2019).

Not all abuses of power are this dramatic and extraordinary. Crossing a moral boundary could be as simple as depriving a student of earned first authorship. Standing up for what you believe is right and saying no is not always an easy task, but it is especially difficult to do with someone who has an advantage in the power dynamic. Researchers found that roleplay makes the action believable and encourages its performance (McSharry & Jones, 2000) which can be practiced during or for academic advising. Although the role that should be enacted by an advisor is perceived so differently (Colvin & Ashman, 2010), gaining a comprehensive understanding of the approaches to academic advising can facilitate more confident and authentic participation. Additionally, understanding the faculty's primary approach for advising a student will assist in developing greater insight of the strengths and weakness of advising and facilitate the establishment of effective advising components and methods.

Expectations of advising include assisting students to better understand their potential and facilitating development of their sense of self through personal transformations, helping them with academic experiences beyond simply choosing courses and majors, and fostering a more holistic self-interpretation (Crookston, 2009/1972/1994). Students should learn to articulate, develop, and accomplish goals with an advisor serving as a liaison between the

institution and the student, offering students with resources. The advisor-student relationship should also foster critical thinking skills by having an advisor who supports and challenges each individual student (McGill, 2017). Ideally, students should walk away from a session with an advisor having gained knowledge of the next steps towards degree completion often including the registration process, programs offered at the school, and what needs to be done to complete a desired program.

Gaining a clear understanding of the Prescriptive and Developmental Theoretical Approaches to advising serves as a platform for producing research from an informed perspective. Giving consideration to theoretical approaches in the field provides a guide for developing concepts, specifically when deciding which variables to evaluate and how to determine what is successful. The literature on academic advising neglects to establish a cohesive role for advising which creates challenges for evaluating programs. Nevertheless, He and Hutson (2016) developed a framework for assessing academic advising programs and explained the framework using the six Ds; disarm, discover, dream, design, deliver, and don't settle. Disarm refers to engaging all stakeholders in order to have a common understanding, purpose, and goals. Discover is exploring the history of advising programs and process including external and internal resources, and valuable inputs to leverage interactions on college campuses. Dream is to align practices and activities with desired outputs, outcomes, and impact. Design is the process of assessment focused on design and data collection methods. Delivery includes the collection and analysis of data, timeline, clear roles, and responsibilities to ensure successful implementation of assessment. Finally, don't settle refers to the connection of institutional visions, missions, and strategic priorities to marshal stakeholders' decisions to support students.

He and Hutson's (2016) assessment framework focused on academic advising within its larger institutional setting. Although a framework for assessing program level advising has been developed, there is still little research that focuses on dyadic advising relationships or regards faculty perceptions, experiences and assessment of academic advising. Additional knowledge in this regard could provide strides to the function of academic assessment on college campuses nationally. The impact of research involving faculty advisors' responses has the potential to be applied within a wide reach of institutions across many sectors.

Conclusion

There is clear empirical evidence of positive outcomes for mentoring in academic and professional settings (Atkinson et al., 1994; Burgstahler & Cronheim, 2001; Campbell & Campbell, 2007; Curtin et al., 2016; Dreher & Cox, 1996; Fries-Britt & Kelly-Turner, 2005; Hansen & Matthews, 2002; Peterson, 2016) however, the impact of mentoring could be negative without proper implementation of services (Murrell et al., 1999). Acknowledging issues of power is essential in cultivating a productive mentoring relationship (Benishek et al., 2004; Fassinger, 2005) and fostering a mentorship relationship has proven especially difficult for individuals from disenfranchised groups (Grant & Simmons, 2008) who are often navigating oppressive systems within higher education. Understanding how the constructs of power and culture impact the effectiveness of an advising relationship is important. As academic institutions and workplaces continue to diversify in this current global society, mentoring models must begin to address the needs of people of color, women, and other marginalized groups in order to encourage connectedness to the department and the university as a whole. Higher education continues to be a dynamic system where the evolution of policy making must be critically examined to guarantee the promotion of equality. The continued evaluation of policies will determine possible strategies

for reversing any disposition. However continued assessment and evaluation of those student support services would be limited if the constructs of power and culture continue to be neglected. Identifying programs, services, and policies within higher education that directly support people from disenfranchised groups will better equip us to more efficiently support students' navigation through oppressive systems within institutions.

Peer mentoring is one strategy utilized to combat the lack of diversity on college campuses and in the absence of formal advising. Promoting connections between students with the objective of supporting one another has been presented by the transformational learning theory which suggests deep meaningful learning is fostered by reflection and peer dialogue causing a perspective shift (Mezirow, 2000). A sense of belonging has also been identified by researchers as a strong predictor of academic success and degree completion (Curtin et al., 2013). An advisor is usually the path to that belongingness as they facilitate integration into academic departments and programs (Curtin et al., 2013). Faculty advisors, policy makers and constituents should be made aware of the importance social support and mattering to the college has.

Although it has been identified by my review of the literature as valued, academic advising has struggled to maintain its status as a profession. Scholars continue to call for more research in the field to promote a cohesive understanding of the role and objectives. This is particularly true in the area of assessment. Powers et al. (2014) reiterated the lack of research regarding assessment practices of academic advising. There has been limited assessment of academic advising programs across the nation (He & Hutson, 2016) and the few past studies assessing academic advising services mainly focus on student evaluations and satisfaction surveys to conclude advisor's effectiveness (Braun & Zolfagharian, 2016; Broadbridge, 1996;

Hamed, et al. 2015). Student perceptions offer valuable information; however, much is left unexplored regarding the effectiveness of student satisfaction surveys, which have been shown to be biased and unreliable (Bitner et al. 1997; Mills & Morris 1986; Roter 1977; Wu 2011). Furthermore, students often have limited understanding of the abstract concepts of advising and lack the ability to measure the full scope of the advising process (McClellan, 2011; Robbins, 2009; Robbins & Adams, 2013; Robbins & Zarges, 2011). Incorporating Student Learning Outcomes to better understand goals and objectives a student is expected to cognitively know, behaviorally do, and affectively value, can be a beneficial measure for evaluating advising however assessment personnel rarely utilize them (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2010; Campbell et al., 2005; Powers et al., 2014; Robbins, 2009; Robbins & Zarges, 2011).

A demand for assessments beyond student satisfaction continues to increase (McClellan, 2011; Taras, 2007). Gaining a better understanding of effectiveness in academic advising programs will facilitate the implementation of more effective strategies. Another major gap in the literature includes the lack of faculty and professor input concerning academic advising evaluation and assessment. Having such limited contributions makes it difficult to make assumptions or develop theories regarding this population. The lack of faculty advisors' contribution could be due to the limited time available to them. Committing to filling out surveys and completing assessments only adds to the already increased responsibility of their research, teaching, and service. It also develops a question of academic advising responsibility within those categories, including how that time and effort would be measured to produce recognition. How invested are faculty in advising students? Do they enjoy the process which would be determined by personal preference? Which methods do faculty most commonly use when advising students? Faculty play a critical part of student success in colleges and university and

may offer unique, learning-focused, approaches to advising students (He & Hutson, 2016). As such, gaining a comprehensive understanding of student advising in institutions of higher education cannot be complete without accessing faculty advisors' perceptions and experiences of the factors that contribute to their advisement relationship.

Four major theoretical approaches to practice models most utilized with academic advising have been identified: prescriptive advising, intrusive advising, developmental advising, and appreciative advising (Drake et al., 2013). He and Hutson (2016) developed a framework for assessing academic advising programs and explained the framework using the six Ds; disarm, discover, dream, design, deliver, and don't settle. This assessment framework focuses on academic advising within its larger institutional setting so implementing it for an individual advising session may prove challenging particularly as the field of academic advising offers no clear unified concepts. In addition, there is no consensus for a theoretical approach to advising and there is significant variability in how advising is implemented (Benishek et al., 2004). Future research should include an adaption of the framework to incorporate and extend to examining the dyadic relationships between individual faculty and their students on a microlevel. Recognizing which constructs impact dyadic advising relationships is vital for gaining insight into effectiveness of academic advising, promoting improvement, and establishing more effective strategies.

Advising has many diverse approaches and has been previously referred to as counseling, encouraging, learning, educating, mentoring and advocating (Hemwall & Trachte, 2005; Lowenstein, 2005; Melander, 2005; Rawlins & Rawlins, 2005). The role of an advisor is unclear to many administrators (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2015; Habley, 2009; Himes, 2014; Kuhn et al., 2006; Kuhn & Padak, 2008; McGill, 2013; McGill & Nutt, 2016; Shaffer et al., 2010). This is

likely due, at least in part, to the significant inconsistency in the language of advisement and the varied titles held by personnel performing similar services (Kuhn et al., 2006). Students, instructors, and mentors all have different perspectives about the role of a mentor and how that role should be enacted (Colvin & Ashman, 2010). Utilizing student learning outcomes as a success measure, examining how a working alliance impacts student success, and incorporating constructs of power and culture has the potential to contribute to the development of a comprehensive research informed assessment system that would be applicable to a wide range of departments, colleges, and universities.

Summation

Some overarching themes that emerged from this review of scholarship are clear positive outcomes for mentoring (Atkinson et al., 1994; Burgstahler & Cronheim, 2001; Campbell, & Campbell, 2007; Curtin et al., 2016; Dreher & Cox, 1996; Fries-Britt & Kelly-Turner, 2005; Hansen & Matthews, 2002; Peterson, 2016) including a sense of belonging on college campus which is a strong predictor of academic success and degree completion (Curtin et al., 2013). An advisor fosters belongingness which facilitates integration into college environment (Curtin et al., 2013). Faculty advisors have positive effects on integration and student persistence (Schreiner et al., 2011) however acknowledging issues of power are essential in cultivating a productive meaningful relationship (Benishek et al., 2004; Fassinger, 2005) This has proven especially difficult for individuals from marginalized groups (Grant & Simmons, 2008).

The review also illustrated severe language inconsistency with varied titles for staff performing the same services (Kuhn et al., 2006) and no clear or consistent language regarding the role of an advisor (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2015; Colvin & Ashman, 2010; Habley, 2009; Himes, 2014; Kuhn et al., 2006; Kuhn & Padak, 2008; McGill, 2013; McGill & Nutt, 2016;

Shaffer et al., 2010). There is a lack of research regarding assessment practices of advising (Powers et al., 2014) and the few past studies assessing academic advising focus on student evaluations and satisfaction surveys (Braun & Zolfagharian, 2016; Broadbridge, 1996; Hamed et al., 2015), which could be biased and lack comprehensive insight. Incorporating Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs) can be a beneficial measure for evaluating advising however they have been rarely utilized in empirical studies (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2010; Campbell et al., 2005; Powers et al., 2014; Robbins, 2009; Robbins & Zarges, 2011). Finally, there remains an increased demand for continuous assessments beyond student satisfaction (McClellan, 2011; Taras, 2007). The purpose of this study is to remedy some gaps in scholarship by examining faculty advisors' perceptions and the associations between and among advisory working alliance, power, culture consciousness, and SLOs.

CHAPTER III

Design and Methodology

This chapter describes the specifics regarding data collection, participants, measures, and procedures used in the study. Instrument validity and reliability data are also discussed. The study's design and the statistical analyses are presented in relation to the hypotheses.

Statement of Positionality

As a School Counselor and Career Counselor working within the K-20 public and private education systems, I have supported countless students from diverse backgrounds with academic development and success. I have also leaned on my own advisors throughout my personal academic and professional career. I believe the examination, analysis, and dissection of an advising relationship is crucial to implementing effective models of practice and I believe an effective advisor could tip the scale between student failure and success. I hope that this study will assist in forming unity and cohesion among advisors including greater consistency in language and expectations of advising to alleviate confusion for students, faculty, and administrators while addressing the role. I value clear expectations for tasks and responsibilities because I believe it is difficult to perform well without clearly defined standards. I also believe it is challenging to determine effectiveness and identify potential for improvement without continued assessment and evaluation of practices.

The constructs included in this study were based on findings from the literature and previous scholarship, however I was not surprised to find that an individual's identity and dynamics within a dyadic relationship could be significant to their continued academic growth and development. My counseling background makes the acceptance and acknowledgement of this literature apparent. In addition to my professional experience, as a Palestinian-American, I

come from an ethnically minoritized culture and could easily understand the importance of feeling heard and seen within personal and professional settings. I value open communication and sincerity of self to promote genuine engagement and connection.

Research Design

This dissertation study is a Quasi-experimental research design in which data was collected via the responses to a questionnaire sent to faculty advisor participants. Reflecting on the previous literature, I examined the relative influence of cultural consciousness and power on the advisory relationship, also known as working alliance, and student learning outcomes (SLO). The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between and among the constructs of working alliance, power, culture, and SLOs with a faculty advisor sample. A second goal of the study was to contribute to the psychometric validation of the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), and the measures designed for this study.

Research Instruments

The questionnaire used in this study was presented in five sections. The first section was the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001), adapted with permission of the first author. The second section, the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), was also adapted with permission. The third section was a survey I developed based on the Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004). The fourth section was a self-designed survey based on Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014) and finally, items in the last section were used to collect participants' demographic information, including the college or university where they work. This section was presented last to minimize stereotype threat and other biases.

The following measures were included:

The Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), adapted with permission of the first author

Faculty participants received an adapted version of the AWAI-A (Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), a 31-item measure designed to assess the advisor–advisee working alliance from the advisor’s perspective. Participants indicated their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The AWAI- A has three subscales. The original 31-item AWAI-A instrument was found to have high validity, with Cronbach’s alpha of .89, with subscales scores of .89 for Rapport, .74 for Apprenticeship, and .71 for Task Focus (Schlosser & Gelso, 2005). My goal while adapting the instruments for this questionnaire was to stay as closely aligned with the original version as possible since any slight changes could affect both reliability and validity of the scales.

The only edits I made was changing the terminology of the AWAI-A from graduate training and graduate school to undergraduate training and undergraduate school to better suit the undergraduate student population. I also removed six questions including “My advisor has invited me to be a responsible collaborator in his/her own work” and “I am an apprentice of my advisor” since they do not relate to the undergraduate population. All of the questions removed were eliminated from the apprenticeship subcategory including “My advisee identifies with me in the way that that I do work”, “My advisee does not want to be like me in the process of conducting work”, “My advisee is an apprentice of mine”, “I have invited my advisee to be a responsible collaborator in my work”, “My advisee does not want to be like me” and “My advisee and I have different interests”.

The Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), adapted with permission of the first author

The PDSS consists of 18 items. In the initial validation study (Cook et al., 2018), each item was presented as two dichotomous statements placed at opposing ends of a sliding scale to represent student participants' perception of the degree of power held by the student and supervisor. Participants also had the option of selecting not applicable for each item statement. Responses to PDSS items were interpreted such that higher ratings indicated that supervisees perceived their supervisor as possessing more power and lower ratings indicated that supervisees perceived themselves as possessing more power. Cook et al. (2018) reported PDSS items has adequate content validity. They also reported separation statistics, equivalent to Cronbach's alpha, for the PDSS instrument as .98 for the instrument and .91 for the sample population of supervisees (n=267).

In the adapted version of the instrument, I utilized a Likert-type scale to maintain consistency of questions and to alleviate confusion for participants while responding. Participants indicated their level of agreement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). I also made minor adjustments to The Power Dynamics in Supervision Scale (PDSS) itself. As an example, I changed "supervisor" to "advisor" and "supervision" session into "advising" session. Since PDSS was originally designed for supervisee respondents I also adapted it to reflect student as the entity of discussion so "I" was changed to "my advisee", "my" was changed to "his/her", and "my supervisor" into "me". As an example "I think my perspective and experiences were valued by my supervisor in this supervision session <> I do not think my perspective and experiences were valued by my

supervisor in this supervision session.” was adapted to read “My advisee thinks his/her perspective and experiences were valued by me in this advisory session”.

The Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004)

I developed the Multicultural-Feminist Mentoring (MFM) instrument from a theoretical framework into a list of questions for the survey. As an example, one subcategory of the characteristics labeled as Rethink of Power and includes “Eschews hierarchies, emphasis on sharing power” was changed for the questionnaire to read “I avoid hierarchies within the relationship and emphasize sharing power with my advisee”. The scale was designed to measure a faculty advisor’s ability to reflect and incorporate culture into discussion, decisions, and overall viewpoints or opinions. Higher scores on the MFM scale mean the advisor is more culturally conscious.

Student Learning Outcomes (SLO; Powers et al., 2014)

The fourth section is related to Student Learning Outcomes (SLO) which were collected from the NACADA guide to Assessment in Academic Advising (Powers et al., 2014) and were developed for the purpose of this study into survey questions with 5 subsections and 21-items. The SLOs were presented as a group of cognitive, behavioral, and affective outcomes. Cognitive outcomes focused on student knowledge, behavioral outcomes focused on student demonstrating effective decision-making skills, and affective outcomes focused on student values and ability to appreciate the benefits of an education. Both third and fourth sections including the designed Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM) and Student Learning Outcomes (SLO) had participants rate their level of agreement with the statements on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

To illustrate, the prompt for the section related to Student Learning Outcomes requests faculty participants rate their level of agreement based on their perceptions of students' knowledge and abilities using provided examples of student measurements in regard to the undergraduate experience. Examples of questions on this section include Cognitive outcomes: Student knows how to schedule an advising appointment; Behavioral outcomes: Student is able to prepare questions for an advising appointment; and Affective outcomes: Student values/appreciates having a sense of ownership of their educational experience.

Population

In this study, faculty advisors are of investigative interest. This population was selected for study to understand faculty advisors' perceptions and experiences of the factors that contribute to their advisement relationship with an identified undergraduate student. As previously stated in my review of the literature, student satisfaction and evaluation surveys, most commonly used when assessing advising services on college campuses, lack a holistic and accurate depiction of effectiveness.

Data Collection

The Institutional Review Board at Seton Hall University's approval to conduct this study initiated the online data collection process in December 2020. Potential participants were sent an e-mail notification inviting them to take part in the survey. The email was sent out using the Microsoft mail merge feature in order to customize each greeting introduction individualized with recipients' names. The solicitation email was sent with a link to Qualtrics presenting the informed consent and subsequently the survey questionnaire.

My objective was to establish the broadest array of diverse sample. Survey questionnaires were sent to the 2020 National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) scholarship award

winners using publicly available data from each of their respective colleges and universities. I also recruited Seton Hall University faculty in the College of Education & Human Services who advise undergraduate students to participate through an internal listserv. In addition, I utilized university websites to collect email addresses from publicly available databases for prospective participant recruitment in order to engage a larger group of faculty within and outside of the Seton Hall University community. From various university directories, I developed my own database of faculty email addresses by visiting school web pages. Faculty from different disciplines across various universities were invited to participate to establish a diverse sample.

The snowball technique was also utilized to request additional participants of contacts who received the questionnaire. In the email soliciting participants, they were asked to share the survey with colleagues and peers as an intentional strategy to reach a large and broad makeup of diverse faculty and to establish the widest sampling of faculty advisors with undergraduate advising responsibilities. My goal was not to limit my participant pool, alternatively, I targeted any and all faculty with undergraduate advisor responsibilities to recruit a broadly diverse and sufficient size sample.

Participants

Using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007, 2009), I estimated the number of participants needed to achieve sufficient power for my primary analyses as 77. My objective was to attain a participant sample of at least 150 faculty personnel who currently have undergraduate student advisory responsibilities. I targeted a diverse participant pool of faculty across institutions including 4-year public and private within the U.S. Higher Education system.

Data Analysis

In this Quasi-experimental research study, I calculated the descriptive statistics including the mean, median, range, and standard deviations for each scale and subscales and the major analyses described later using SPSS. Each section within the questionnaire produced a composite variable. All survey items pertaining to the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005) together produced one overall score. Similarly, all survey items pertaining to the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018) together produced one score and items pertaining to the Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) produced one score. The fourth section pertaining to Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014) together produced one outcome variable score. These scores independent of each other were sub-scores of the questionnaire as a whole and all sections together including the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), the Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) and Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014) produced one total score. Then to test the correlation between the variables, I calculated a Pearson's correlation coefficient to determine the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables. After calculating the correlations between each of the subsections of the questionnaire, I calculated the variance inflation factor (VIF) and assessed for multicollinearity.

In order to test the hypotheses, I examined the relationship between and among the constructs as measured by participants' responses to the Advisory Working Alliance (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), the Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) Scale designed for this study, and the Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014) Scale, also designed for this study.

The survey was scored with results presenting higher levels from the adapted Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001) section indicating an increased level of working alliance between the student and faculty advisor. As such, the higher a participant's score for this section the stronger they perceive their relationship with their advisee student to be. Respectively, higher scores on the Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) section of the survey represent an increased incorporation of culture and cultural consciousness within advising sessions. The section of the survey adapted from the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018) was scored as higher responses indicating perceived higher levels of shared power within an advising session. Alternatively, lower levels on the adapted PDSS portion of the survey represent an increase or greater level of power being held by the advisor within an advising session. The fourth section, my self-designed measure based on Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014), was scored such that higher levels indicate the faculty advisor's perception that the advisee demonstrated higher levels of knowledge, behavioral, and affective values during the advising session.

Hypothesis 1: Working alliance will be positively associated with student learning outcomes. As the level of working alliance increases between a student and faculty advisor so too will the students' learning outcomes.

The following hypotheses were tested:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

My analysis examined the relationship between faculty advisors' perceptions of the advising relationship and student learning outcomes of that relationship. This analysis allows for a clear understanding of how faculty perceptions of a working advising relationship influence student learning outcomes.

Hypothesis 2: Based on my review of the literature, I also hypothesized that power and cultural consciousness will, collectively and independently, impact the relationship between working alliance and student learning outcomes. Recognition and respect for power and cultural consciousness will have a positive effect on the relationship between an advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes. This relationship was analyzed using a hierarchical multiple regression.

The following hierarchical multiple regression models were run:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \beta_2 \text{Power} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \beta_2 \text{Cultural Consciousness} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \beta_2 \text{Power} + \beta_3 \text{Cultural Consciousness} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

Adding one variable to my analysis at a time allowed for a clear observation of each construct's impact, collectively and independently, on student learning outcomes. The purpose of this analysis is to examine the relationship between and among the constructs of working alliance, power, culture, and Student Learning Outcomes with a faculty advisor sample.

Hypothesis 3: I hypothesized that, after incorporating cultural consciousness and power into an advisory working alliance the combination as a set made a positive impact on student learning outcomes. The final hypothesis was that faculty advisors' self-perception of shared power and increased recognition of culture within the dyadic relationship with students is positively associated with working alliance and student learning outcomes. After completing a regression to determine if working alliance is significantly related to student learning outcomes, I ran a simultaneous regression incorporating both power (PDSS) and cultural consciousness (MFM) in order to determine power and cultural consciousness' effect on the relationship between working alliance and student learning outcomes. This analysis tested for the hypothesis

that power and cultural consciousness positively impact the relationship between working alliance and student learning outcomes.

The following model was run:

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \beta_2 \text{Power} + \beta_3 \text{Cultural Consciousness} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

Limitations

This study is limited by several factors, however steps were taken throughout the planning process to mitigate their effects on the data, allowing for generalizability of results, and promotion of future research including replication of this study. Several limitations are presented based inherently on the realities of survey self-reporting response biases. The first is social desirability, inaccurately or falsely responding to questions with a more socially desirable (or acceptable) answer which stems from a motivation to please the researcher (Edwards, 1953). In an attempt to prevent socially desirable responses from impacting my findings in a negative manner, my survey was distributed and collected with anonymous responses. Another method used to reduce this bias was the use of balanced response (Nederhof, 1985). There were a balanced number of positively and negatively worded questions within the questionnaire. Question order bias, a respondent's tendency to react differently to questions based on the order in which they appear in a questionnaire, was addressed using a method identified by the Pew Research Center: grouping questions by topic in order to logically unfold (Pew Research Center, 2021).

I recruited participants via direct emails to faculty members and requested they share the survey with their contacts. As such, I am unable to calculate an accurate and exact response rate or assess non-response bias. The responses to the measures of my questionnaire could also be influenced by a self-serving bias and self-selection bias. Faculty who desire to appear as a good advisor may respond in a socially desirable manner and faculty who value advising services may

be more inclined to participate in the study as participation is voluntary. In addition to the limitations listed above, this study also fails to consider student advisees' diversity of background as their identity is unknown. These limitations can be addressed in future research by assessing both faculty advisors' and student advisees' perspectives concurrently to compare perspectives and by involving an entire department or university in completing the assessment in an effort to compare results across disciplines. This examination across disciplines and universities also provides unique insight and an opportunity for reflection into how the sample composition may influence the results of this study.

Due to what we know about the homogeneity of the professorate, the feasibility of a diverse sample was a potential limitation of the study. Because the targeted population is not demographically balanced, my responses had a higher likelihood of skewed distributions in gender, race/ethnicity, university selectivity, number of years of faculty advising responsibilities, and position title type, which proved true. In addition, the results of this study could have been influenced by the sample composition in a number of additional ways. First, since the majority of respondents were White male faculty, it's possible they might not have understood and/or valued the importance of cultural competence or sharing power within an advisory relationship. Since the data collected is based on faculty perceptions, underlying biases could have influenced the results of this study. The results might also have been different with a more diverse sample or one comprised of faculty from racially minoritized groups. In addition to potential biases surrounding advising services, faculty members' personal preferences and professional interests could have impacted responses to the questionnaire. Finally, participants' expectations of advising services, since there is significant inconsistency of the role, may have impacted the results of this study.

When reflecting on the limitations of the instruments incorporated in the questionnaire, it is important to specifically highlight the outcome variable: Student Learning Outcomes. All other sections in the questionnaire reflected faculty participants' thoughts, beliefs, and experiences however, items in the section on SLOs asked respondents to assess students' knowledge, behaviors, and affect. SLOs were created from a standard which may not be familiar to faculty advisors and is more typically recognized in the professional advising realm through NACADA. Although NACADA is a national association, the membership is comprised mostly of professional advisors and only a small percentage of faculty advisors. Also, as stated earlier, these expectations are unique to typical standards known and utilized in the field of education such as graduation rate and persistence rate, as such, there is little information in the professional literature about the reliability and validity of these outcome measures. Finally, the results lack student-generated data and are compiled entirely based on faculty perceptions. It is noteworthy that this outcome variable may be somewhat subjective, however faculty typically grade and evaluate student knowledge, competencies, and achievement. This establishes justification for the use of faculty observations as assessments of student learning outcomes. Moreover, direct quantitative student records such as GPA are an accumulation of faculty's assessment of student knowledge of subject content. This potential limitation could be addressed in future research by including student-generated responses and direct student records as additional outcome measures.

Acknowledgements that require explanation are the tendency for grading differences in professoriate positions. Full-time tenured professors grade more rigorously than adjunct professors (Chen et al., 2019; Moore & Trahan, 1998), which may impact the manner in which they respond to survey questions about Student Learning Outcomes. Other factors that could

explain faculty perceptions of SLOs include a student's pre-mentorship preparedness. Students' preparedness was accounted for by a baseline acceptance into a 4-year college or university. The data is limited to 4-year baccalaureate degree granting institutions and does not include 2-year community colleges or vocational schools. Institutional selectivity also serves as a baseline control for student pre-mentoring preparedness.

The data collected in this study is cross-sectional and since the advising relationship is dynamic and likely to change over time, a longitudinal research study would benefit the literature. Additionally, since data was collected during a global pandemic, which negatively impacted students' mental well-being with a sizable percentage of students experiencing increased stress and/or anxiety levels, increased suicidal ideation, and depression related to the pandemic (TimelyMD, 2020), this presumably may have affected the data. Limitations of the study create an opportunity for future research.

Response Rate

The solicitation email was sent to 6,036 faculty email addresses, 2.4% (n = 145) of those emails returned with an undeliverable message indicating they were never received by potential respondents. This could be due to faculty employees moving jobs, retirement, or sophisticated technology servers blocking out of organization emails in addition to a number of other potential reasons. Similarly, 2.8% (n = 166) faculty responded to my solicitation email indicating that they do not have undergraduate student responsibilities and therefore are ineligible to participate in the study or complete the survey. A total of (n = 322) respondents started the survey, however (n = 14) of respondents did not consent to participating in the study and were directed to a thank you message which concluded their contribution. Another (n=152) of respondents started but did not complete the survey. Results from 4 respondents who completed

most of the survey but did not answer questions requesting information regarding demographics were included in the analysis.

It is difficult to calculate an accurate response rate considering the snowball technique was utilized to appeal for additional participants from contacts who received the questionnaire. Since the email soliciting participants asked recipients to share the survey, there is no way of knowing how many individuals received the request. It is also important to note that although only 2.4% ($n = 145$) emails returned an undeliverable message of the 6,036 emails initially sent out, there could be an unidentifiable number of emails that were directly sent to spam by technology systems implemented by IT departments in institutions of higher education blocking external incoming messages, or simply discarded as junk. Another noteworthy point is that while 2.8% ($n = 166$) of faculty responded to the email notifying me that they do not have undergraduate advising responsibilities and are ineligible to participate, there may be many more faculty who received the request, were ineligible to respond, however did not notify me. While consideration of these factors that may have impacted the overall response rate are listed, the instances within this study are unavoidably unknown. An estimated response rate of 2.5% was established however, after removing all faculty emails who indicated they do not qualify for the study and removing undeliverable emails from the calculation, a final response rate using only the remaining 5,725 potential participants yielded a 2.7% response rate. A final sample of 156 faculty advisor responses were utilized in the analysis, which exceeded the minimum number of 77 required to attain statistical power (Faul et al. 2007, 2009)

Overall Response Sample Demographics

Of the total 152 respondents who completed the demographic questionnaire for the item requesting gender information 53.8% ($n = 84$) indicated they are male, 42.3% ($n = 66$) female,

1.3 % (n = 2) selected other, and 2.6% (n = 4) did not answer this question. For the open-response race/ethnicity item, 80.8% (n = 126) participants identified as White, 1.9% (n = 3) participants as Black or African American, and 0.6% (n = 1) participant as American Indian or Alaska Native. Furthermore, 5.1% (n = 8) participants identified as Asian or Asian-American, 0% (n = 0) identified as Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander, and 10.9% (n = 17) of participants identified as Other including Hispanic and Latino.

Table 1

Response Sample Demographics: Gender in total number and percentages

Participants Gender	Total	Percent
Male	84	53.8
Female	66	42.3
Other	2	1.3
Missing	4	2.6
Total	156	100.0

Table 2

Response Sample Demographics: Race/Ethnicity in total number and percentages

Race/Ethnicity of participant	Total	Percentage
White	126	80.8
Black or African American	3	1.9
American Indian/ Alaska Native	1	0.6
Asian	8	5.1
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	0	0
Race Other	17	10.9

Within the response sample, faculty respondents indicated position titles ranging from Professor 37.2% (n = 58), Associate Professor 14.1% (n = 22), Assistant Professor 10.3% (n = 16), Adjunct Professor 21.2% (n = 33) and other 14.7% (n = 23) including titles such as Auxiliary Faculty and Program Director, Contingent Faculty, Faculty Advisor, Faculty Associate, Full Time Faculty, Instructor, Lecturer, Professor of Practice, and Senior Lecturer. The number of years each faculty advisor has worked with undergraduate students had a mean of ($M = 14.1$), median of ($Mdn = 11$), with a standard deviation ($SD = 11.9$). The participant sample population variance for number of years faculty advisors have worked with undergraduate students ($s^2 = 141.6$) and an overall dispersion range of 42. The average number of years working as a faculty advisor by position title are Professor (27), Associate Professor (16), Other (15), Adjunct Professor (15), Assistant Professor, (8), and Missing (1).

Table 3

Response Sample Demographics: Faculty Position Title in total number and percentages

Faculty Position Title	Total	Percent
Adjunct Professor	33	21.2
Assistant Professor	16	10.3
Associate Professor	22	14.1
Professor	58	37.2
Other	23	14.7
Missing	4	2.6
Total	156	100.0

Table 4

Response Sample Demographics: Years as Faculty Advisor

Mean	14.1
Median	11.0
Std. Deviation	11.9
Variance	141.6
Range	42.0

Institutional Demographics

Participants were asked if their respective institution was public or private. Of those who responded to the electronic survey 134 (85.9%) were from a public 4-year institution and 18 (11.5%) were from a 4-year private institution.

Table 5

Response Sample Demographics: Institution type of participant respondents in total n. and percentages

Institution Type	Total	Percent
4-year public	134	85.9
4-year private	18	11.5
Missing	4	2.6
Total	156	100.0

The respondents were from a number of diverse institutions including Arizona State University, The Ohio State University, and Seton Hall University. A full list is provided in the table below.

Table 6

Response Sample Demographics: Institution name of participant respondents in total n. and percentages

Institution Name	Total	Percent
Missing	4	2.6
Alabama A&M University	2	1.3
Arizona State University	79	50.6
Choose not to respond	7	4.5
Kent State	1	0.6
Purdue University	1	0.6
Samford University	6	3.8
Seton Hall University	8	5.1
Several	1	0.6
The Ohio State University	40	25.6
The University of Southern Cal.	2	1.3
University of Arizona	1	0.6
University of Colorado	1	0.6
University of Delaware	2	1.3
University of La Verne	1	0.6
Total	156	100.0

The Discipline or Department respondents work in from each of the faculty participants' respective institutions ranged from STEM disciplines, education, social sciences, to humanities. A full list is provided below with total number of participants affiliated with each university and percentages.

Table 7

Response Sample Demographics: Discipline/Department of participant respondents in total n. and percentages

Discipline or Department:	n	%	Dental	1	0.6
Aeronautics	1	0.6	Department of Animal Sciences	1	0.6
African and African American Studies	1	0.6	Economics	1	0.6
Anthropology	2	1.3	Education	6	3.8
Anthropology/Religious Studies	1	0.6	Educational studies	1	0.6
Art	2	1.3	Eller College of Management	1	0.6
Art History	1	0.6	Engineering	4	2.6
Arts and Sciences	1	0.6	English	5	3.2
Asian Studies	1	0.6	Food, Agricultural and Biological Engineering	1	0.6
Aviation	1	0.6	French and Italian	2	1.3
Barrett, the Honors College	1	0.6	Gender Studies	1	0.6
Biology	2	1.3	Health & Rehabilitation Sciences	1	0.6
Biomedical Diagnostics	1	0.6	Health Sciences	2	1.3
BSN	1	0.6	History	2	1.3
Business	1	0.6	Horticulture	1	0.6
Chemical and Biomolecular Engineering	1	0.6	Horticulture and Crop Science	2	1.3
Chemical Engineering	1	0.6	Horticulture and Crop Science Food agricultural and Biological Engineering	1	0.6
Chemistry	1	0.6	Hospitality	1	0.6
Choose not to respond	5	3.2	Human Development and Family Science	1	0.6
City and Regional Planning	1	0.6	Industrial Engineering	1	0.6
Civil and Environmental Engineering	1	0.6	Information Technology	1	0.6
Classics	1	0.6	Interior Design/Architecture	1	0.6
Classics and Philosophy	1	0.6	Journalism	3	1.9
Clinical Pharmacy	1	0.6	Journalism/Mass Communication	1	0.6
Clinical Research	1	0.6	Justice and Social Inquiry	1	0.6
College of Business	1	0.6	Justice Studies, School of Social Transformation, College of Liberal Arts & Sciences	1	0.6
College of Education and Human Services	2	1.3	Kinesiology	1	0.6
College of Health Solutions	1	0.6	Leadership and Integrative Studies	1	0.6
Communication	1	0.6	Life Sciences	1	0.6
Construction	1	0.6	Linguistics	2	1.3
Criminal Justice	2	1.3	Literature and Culture in Spanish	1	0.6
Cronkite School of Journalism and Mass Communication	1	0.6	Mathematics	2	1.3
Dance	2	1.3	Mechanical Engineering	1	0.6
Pharmacy	1	0.6	Music	2	1.3
Philosophy	1	0.6	Music Education	1	0.6

Physics	1	0.6	Near Eastern Languages and Cultures	1	0.6
Police Graduate Studies	1	0.6	Nursing	6	3.8
Political Science	2	1.3	Social Sciences/Political Science	1	0.6
Psychology	5	3.2	Sociology	1	0.6
Psychology School of Social & Behavioral Sciences New College of Interdisciplinary Arts & Sciences	1	0.6	Software Engineering	1	0.6
Public Health	1	0.6	Studio Art	1	0.6
Religious Studies	1	0.6	Surgery	1	0.6
School for the Future of Innovation in Society	2	1.3	Sustainability	3	1.9
School of Communication	1	0.6	Teachers College	1	0.6
School of Community Resources and Development	1	0.6	Technological Entrepreneurship and Management	1	0.6
School of Life Sciences	3	1.9	The Design School	1	0.6
School of Social Transformation	1	0.6	Theatre	2	1.3
School of Social Work	3	1.9	Transborder Studies	1	0.6
School of Sustainability	1	0.6	Veterinary Biosciences	1	0.6
Medical Laboratory Science	1	0.6	Watts College of Public Service and Community Solutions	1	0.6
Medicine	1	0.6	World Languages and Cultures	1	0.6
Mindfulness and Personal Growth Curriculum for the School of Education	1	0.6	Writing	1	0.6
Missing	4	2.6	Total	156	100
<i>Note. N. = 156</i>					

Descriptive Data Analysis

Select and identified questions within the adapted The Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005) and The Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018) were reverse coded to establish an accurate total score. After reverse coding identified item responses in accordance with the original authors' guidelines, a total score was created for each instrument in the survey including The Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), The Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), the Student Learning Outcomes (SLO; Powers et al., 2014) Scale, and the Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004) Scale.

The survey was scored so that higher scores on the adapted Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2001) section represented a higher level of working

alliance, or better working relationship, between the student and faculty advisor. As such, the higher a participant's score for this section the stronger they perceive their relationship with their advisee student to be. Similarly, higher scores on the Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) section of the survey represent higher levels of incorporation of culture and cultural consciousness within advising sessions. The section of the survey adapted from the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018) was scored as higher responses indicating perceived higher levels of shared power within an advising session. Alternatively, lower levels on this adapted PDSS portion of the survey represent a greater level of power being held by the advisor within an advising session. The fourth section, my measure based on Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014), was scored such that higher levels indicate the advisor perceives the student advisee to have higher levels of knowledge, behavioral, and values in the target advising session.

The data was examined and descriptive statistics including percentages and averages were generated for each scale and subscales using SPSS. After creating total scores and sub scores for the adapted Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), the Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004) Scale, and Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs; Powers et al., 2014) Scale, I reviewed the data for outliers by calculating the 5% trimmed mean, removing 5% of the extreme scores on either ends, both lower and higher ends, of my dataset (Welsh, 1987). As presented in the table below, there were minimal differences between the means of each total score and the 5% trimmed means, indicating outliers had little effect on the dataset, so the full dataset was retained for further analyses including correlation and regression.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of instruments

Instrument	Mean	SD	Variance
AWAI	43.55	10.70	114.57
Total			
MFMTotal	34.71	9.45	89.36
PDSS Total	35.31	5.93	35.15
SLO Total	37.17	12.1	146.63

Table 9

Means and 5% Trimmed Means

Instrument	Mean	5% Trimmed
SLOs	37.17	36.5
PDSS	35.31	35.2
MFMT	34.71	34.2
AWAI	43.55	42.8

After checking for potential outliers, I examined the dataset for assumptions of regression including the assumptions of normality, linearity, homoscedasticity, and absence of multicollinearity. The below Figure 3.1 Predicted Probability (P-P) plot shows the residuals are normally distributed, and the Figure 3.2 scatterplot illustrates the data is homoscedastic. The (P-P) plot and scatterplot together satisfy the assumption of linearity.

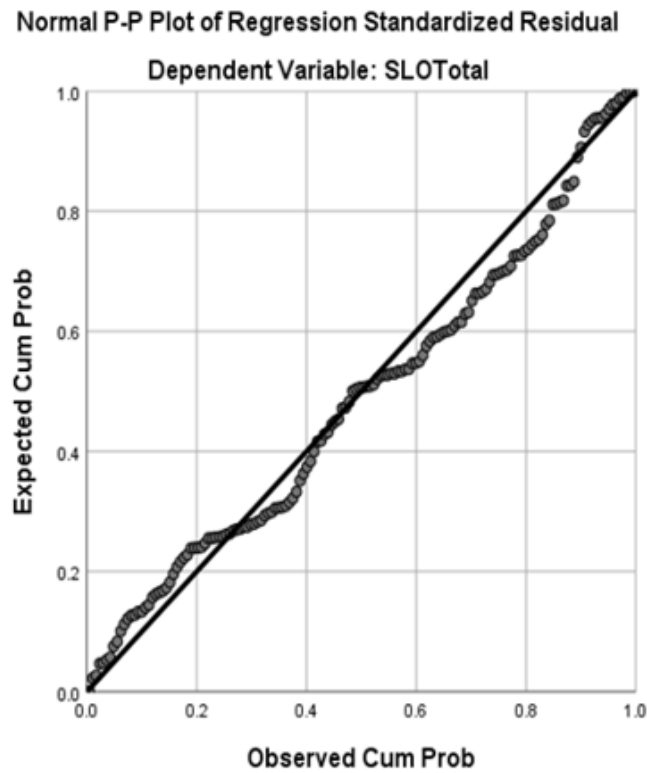


Figure 3.1 *Predicted Probability (P-P) plot*

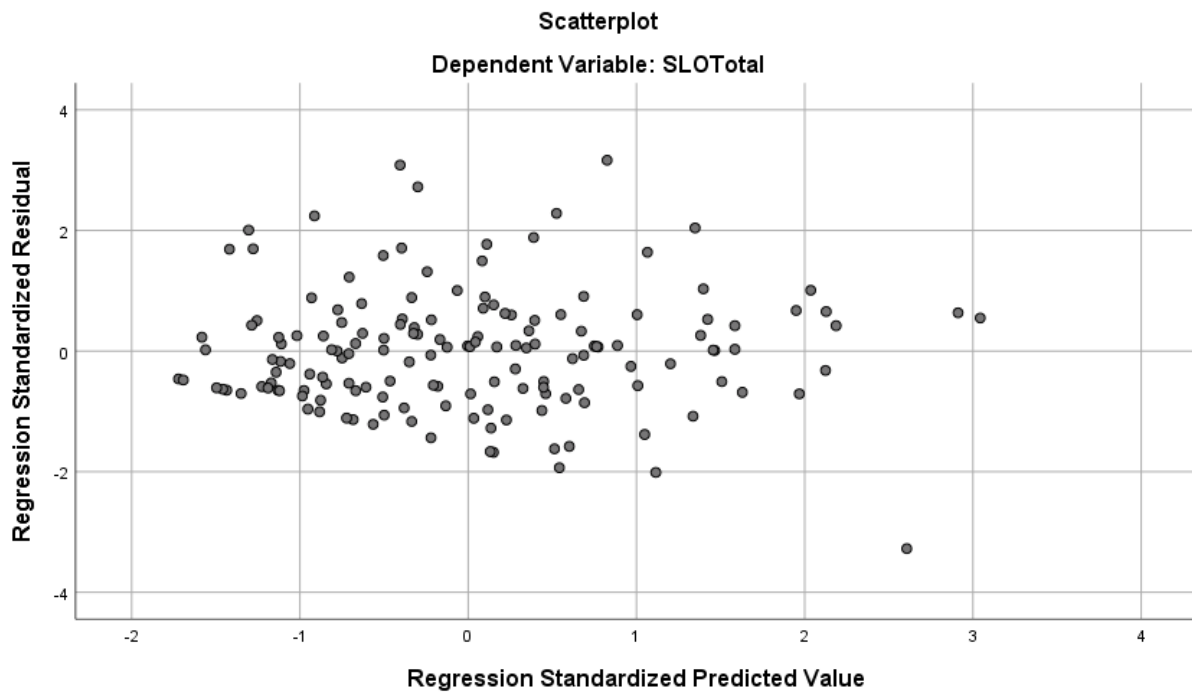


Figure 3.2 *Scatterplot*

Finally, to test the dataset for multicollinearity, I examined the correlation coefficients and calculated variance inflation factor (VIF) values. The VIF for the adapted Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005) was 1.876, The VIF for the adapted Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018) was 1.826, and the VIF for Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004) Scale was 2.014 with Student Learning Outcomes (SLO; Powers et al., 2014) as the dependent variable. These scores, all of which were considerably below 5 (Franke, 2010), together with correlation coefficients below .80 indicated that multicollinearity is not a concern (Franke 2010). Table 10 shows Pearson's correlation coefficients to establish the strength and direction of the relationship between the variables.

Table 10

Pearson Correlations Matrix of Student Learning Outcomes, Power Dynamics Supervision Scale, Multicultural Feminist Model, and Advisory Working Alliance

Correlations Matrix	SLO Total	PDSS Total	MFM Total	AWAI Total
SLOTotal	1	.471**	.482**	.469**
PDSSTotal	.471**	1	.626**	.589**
MFMTotal	.482**	.626**	1	.639**
AWAITotal	.469**	.589**	.639**	1
** p< .01 level, two-tailed				

Instrument Psychometric Validity

To meet the objective of contributing to the psychometric validation of the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), and the measures designed for this study, a reliability analysis was run to assess the internal consistency of the responses given in each of the scores. Faculty participants received an adapted version of the AWAI-A (Schlosser & Gelso,

2005) as a subsection within the questionnaire. The instrument was designed to assess the advisor–advisee working alliance from the advisor’s perspective and has three subscales. The original 31-item AWAI-A instrument established a high validity of .89 and the subscales yielded .89 for Rapport, .74 for Apprenticeship, and .71 for Task Focus (Schlosser & Gelso, 2005). For this sample, Cronbach’s alpha for the adapted 25-item scale was .87, with subscale scores of Rapport .86, Apprenticeship .57 (from which I had removed several items that were not relevant for this study), and Task Focus .73.

The Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004), a theoretical framework developed into an instrument for the purpose of this study, yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .88. This subsection of the scale identified faculty participants’ self-perceived recognition of culture within a dyadic relationship with students. The adapted Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018) examined faculty participants’ self-perceived recognition of shared power within a dyadic relationship with students. Internal consistency for the 16-item subscale was found to be .77 for this sample. The Student Learning Outcomes (SLO; Powers et al., 2014) inventory was developed for this study to assess academic advising by considering cognitive outcomes focused on student knowledge, behavioral outcomes focused on student demonstrating effective decision-making skills, and affective outcomes focused on student values and ability to appreciate the benefits of an education. The 21-item scale was found to have a Cronbach's alpha of .94. The full instrument score including items from the Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), The Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004) Scale, and Student Learning Outcomes (SLO; Powers et al., 2014) Scale, produced a Cronbach's alpha of .927, illustrating substantially strong internal consistency.

Chapter IV

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between and among the constructs of working alliance, power, cultural consciousness, and Student Learning Outcomes with a faculty advisor sample. To examine these relationships, I employed the use of an electronic survey to obtain the quantitative data to facilitate this research and support informed future decision-making. The methodology and subsequent analyses expanded from the following research questions: Is there a significant relationship between the working alliance of faculty advisors and undergraduate student advisees and student learning outcomes? To what extent, if any, do cultural consciousness and power influence the relationship between faculty advisors' working alliance with undergraduate student advisees and student learning outcomes?

This chapter discusses the data analysis process and the results, which aligned with the steps illustrated in Chapter 3. Data was collected in Qualtrics and exported to SPSS for analysis. In order to facilitate the analysis, several survey item categories were recoded to create more effective visualizations of descriptive data. Descriptive statistics were compiled for each of the demographic survey items, as well as for the subgroups within the survey instruments.

Results by Hypothesis

The following analyses tested three hypotheses for this research study. The first is that working alliance is positively associated with student learning outcomes. As the level of working alliance increases between an undergraduate student and faculty advisor so too will the students' performance of learning outcomes. The second hypothesis was that power and cultural consciousness will, collectively and independently, impact the relationship between working alliance and student learning outcomes. Recognition and respect for power and cultural

consciousness will have a positive effect on the relationship between an advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes. Finally, I hypothesized that advisory working alliance, cultural consciousness, and power together will have a positive impact on student learning outcomes. Higher levels of faculty advisors' perception of shared power, higher working alliance, and increased recognition of culture within the dyadic relationship with students would be positively associated with student learning outcomes.

The analyses presented below examined the relationship between and among the constructs as measured by faculty participants' responses to the Advisory Working Alliance (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), the Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) Scale designed for this study, and the Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014) Scale, also designed for this study.

Hypothesis 1

To test that a working alliance is positively associated with student learning outcomes. I ran a hierarchical multiple regression model. The first model in the regression depicts working alliance as a predictor and student learning outcomes as the dependent variable.

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

My analysis examined the relationship between faculty advisors' perceptions of the advising relationship and their perceptions of student learning outcomes based, in part, on that relationship. An advisory working alliance, predicted student learning outcomes, $\beta = .469$, $t(154) = 6.58$, $p = 0$. Advisory working alliance also explained a significant proportion of variance in student learning outcomes, $R^2 = .22$, $F(1, 154) = 43.32$, $p = 0$. The results fully support the first hypothesis that a working alliance is positively associated with student learning outcomes with SLOs as a composite outcome variable. All survey items pertaining to student learning outcomes

together produced an overall score. The stronger a faculty advisor's relationship with their advisee, the higher the students learning outcomes. This analysis allows for a clear understanding of how faculty perceptions of a working advising relationship influence their perceptions of student learning outcomes. As the level of working alliance increases between a student and faculty advisor so too do the students' learning outcomes.

Hypothesis 2

Analyzing the second, third, and fourth models in my hierarchal multiple regression resulted in support of my second hypothesis that power and cultural consciousness will, collectively and independently, impact the relationship between working alliance and student learning outcomes. To find the increment and variation accounted for by power and cultural consciousness, I assessed the change in R-squared from the first model, which only included the construct of working alliance as a predictor, in the results of the second, third, and fourth models. The second model tested the addition of power to the first model. The third model tested the addition of cultural consciousness to the first model. Finally, the fourth model collectively included power and cultural consciousness.

The second model examined the impact power has on the relationship between a working alliance and student learning outcomes.

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \beta_2 \text{Power} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

In the second model an advisory working alliance predicted student learning outcomes, $\beta = .293$, $t(154) = 3.444$, $p = .001$ and shared power predicted student learning outcomes, $\beta = .298$, $t(154) = 3.505$, $p = .001$. Advisory working alliance and power collectively explained a proportion of variance in student learning outcomes, $R^2 = .28$, $F(1, 153) = 12.28$, $p = .001$. The change suggests an incremental predictive power of ($SIG f = .058$) additional variation in the

student learning outcomes variable. Recognition and respect for power within an advising session positively predicts the relationship between an advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes.

The third model examined the impact of cultural consciousness on the relationship between a working alliance and student learning outcomes.

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \beta_2 \text{Cultural Consciousness} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

An advisory working alliance predicted student learning outcomes, $\beta = .271$, $t(153) = 3.033$, $p = .003$ and cultural consciousness predicted student learning outcomes, $\beta = .309$, $t(153) = 3.455$, $p = .001$. Advisory working alliance and cultural consciousness collectively explained a proportion of variance in student learning outcomes, $R^2 = .276$, $F(1, 153) = 11.94$, $p = .001$. The change suggests an incremental predictive power of ($SIG f = .056$) additional variation in the student learning outcomes variable. Recognition and respect for cultural consciousness within an advising session positively effects the relationship between an advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes. This analysis allowed me to examine the relationship between and among the constructs of working alliance, power, culture, and Student Learning Outcomes with a faculty advisor sample.

The fourth model examined the impact of power and cultural consciousness on the relationship between a working alliance and student learning outcomes.

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \beta_2 \text{Power} + \beta_3 \text{Cultural Consciousness} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

When all constructs were incorporated into the model, an advisory working alliance predicted student learning outcomes $\beta = .203$, $t(152) = 2.181$, $p = .031$, shared power predicted student learning outcomes $\beta = .215$, $t(152) = 2.342$, $p = .02$, and cultural consciousness predicted student learning outcomes $\beta = .218$, $t(152) = 2.27$, $p = .025$. Advisory working alliance, power,

and cultural consciousness collectively explained a proportion of variance in student learning outcomes, $R^2 = .301$, $F(1, 152) = 8.885$, $p = 0$. The change suggests an incremental predictive power of ($SIG f = .082$) additional variation in the student learning outcomes variable, indicating a significant increase in predictive power from model one to model two. Following the addition of power and cultural consciousness, the incremental predictive power yields a considerable increase. Recognition and respect for power and cultural consciousness have a positive effect on the relationship between an advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes. Adding one variable to my analysis at a time allowed for a clear observation of each construct's impact, collectively independently and collectively, on student learning outcomes.

In sum, the results fully support hypothesis 2.

Table 11

Coefficients^a of hierarchical multiple regression models

		Unst. Coefficients		St. Coefficients	Change Statistics										
		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.	R	R Squar.	Adj. R Squ	Std. Err of the Est	R Squar Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change
1	Constant	14.083	3.611		3.9	0									
	AWAITotal	0.53	0.081	0.469	6.581	0	.469 ^a	0.22	0.214	10.732	0.22	43.313	1	154	0
2	Constant	1.236	5.058		0.244	0.807									
	AWAITotal	0.331	0.096	0.293	3.444	0.001									
	PDSSTotal	0.609	0.174	0.298	3.505	.001	.527 ^b	0.278	0.268	10.359	0.058	12.283	1	153	0.001
	Constant	10.07	3.678		2.738	0.007									
3	AWAITotal	0.307	0.101	0.271	3.033	0.003									
	MFMTTotal	0.396	0.115	0.309	3.455	.001	.525 ^b	0.276	0.267	10.370	0.056	11.938	1	153	0.001
	Constant	1.997	5.002		0.399	0.69									
	AWAITotal	0.229	0.105	0.203	2.181	0.031									
4	PDSSTotal	0.438	0.187	0.215	2.342	0.020									
	MFMTTotal	0.28	0.123	0.218	2.27	0.025	.549 ^b	0.301	0.287	10.221	0.082	8.885	2	152	.000

Predictors: (Constant), AWAITotal
Predictors: AWAITotal, PDSSTotal, MFMTTotal
Dependent Variable: SLOTotal

Hypothesis 3

My final hypothesis was that advisory working alliance, cultural consciousness, and power together will have a positive impact on student learning outcomes. Higher levels of faculty advisors' self-perception of shared power, increased levels of a working alliance, and recognition of culture within the dyadic relationship with students is positively associated with student learning outcomes. In order to test for this hypothesis, I ran a simultaneous multiple regression incorporating power, cultural consciousness, and working alliance to determine their effect on student learning outcomes.

$$\beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Working Alliance} + \beta_2 \text{Power} + \beta_3 \text{Cultural Consciousness} + \varepsilon = \text{Student Learning Outcomes}$$

As a set, the predictors power, cultural consciousness, and working alliance accounted for significant variation in student learning outcomes with $R^2 = .301, p < .001$. Together, these three constructs were positively associated with student learning outcomes and statistically significant contributors to the model. This indicates that faculty participants' self-perceived shared power and cultural consciousness within the dyadic relationship with students was positively associated with their perception of student learning outcomes. The stronger a working alliance between an undergraduate student and faculty advisor, the higher the students' learning outcomes performance, based on the faculty participants' perspectives. Also, as recognition and respect for shared power and cultural consciousness increased within the dyadic relationship so too did students' learning outcomes. When all constructs were incorporated into the model, advisory working alliance predicted student learning outcomes $\beta = .203, p < .003$, shared power predicted student learning outcomes $\beta = .215, p < .002$, and cultural consciousness predicted student learning outcomes $\beta = .218, p < .003$. The coefficients of the model all had the same relative weight in the formula with positive regression slopes.

Table 12

*Coefficients^a of Power Dynamics Supervision Scale,
Multicultural Feminist Model, and Advisory Working Alliance*

Instrument	Unstandardized B	Standardized Beta	Sig.
AWAI Total	0.229	0.203	0.03
MFM Total	0.280	0.218	0.03
PDSS Total	0.438	0.215	0.02
Note dependent variable is SLOs			

Contextual and Supplemental Analyses

Manually establishing a large faculty directory of email addresses from university web pages allowed me to target a vast and diverse sample population. I was successful in achieving my goal of acquiring participants from a wide range of universities across the nation and all along the discipline spectrum ranging from STEM to humanities. My overall response sample population also included faculty participants throughout the continuum of many faculty members' professional careers including Professor and Associate Professor to Assistant Professor and Adjunct Professor. The sample included both public and private institution however 85.9% were from public 4-year institutions. The sample balanced a comparable number of male to female ratio however heavily represents White participants with 80% of the sample.

This study also achieved its goal of contributing to the psychometric validation of the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005), the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; (Cook et al., 2018), and the measures designed for this study, The Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004) Scale, and Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs; Powers et al., 2014) Scale. The full instrument and subsequent subscales all established reliability. The full instrument score produced a Cronbach's alpha of .927, illustrating substantially strong internal consistency. Items from the adapted Working

Alliance Inventory (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005) subscale yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .87. Items from the adapted Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018) yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .77. Items from the subscale developed using the Multicultural Feminist Model (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004), yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .88. Items from the subscale developed using Student Learning Outcomes (SLOs; Powers et al., 2014) yielded a Cronbach's alpha of .94.

Summary Results

Principally the analyses tested three hypotheses- all of which were fully supported. The results show that working alliance is positively associated with student learning outcomes. Second, that power and cultural consciousness contribute to the relationship between perceived working alliance and SLOs. Finally, cultural consciousness, power, and advisory working alliance together have a positive effect on student learning outcomes. As a set, the predictors power, cultural consciousness, and working alliance accounted for significant variation in student learning outcomes with $R^2 = .301$, $p < .001$. This result surpasses the large effect size threshold (.26) when compared to the possibility of a small (.02) or medium (.13) effect size (Cohen, 1992). Together, the constructs are positively associated with student learning outcomes demonstrating that faculty participants' self-perceived shared power and cultural consciousness within the dyadic relationship with students is positively associated with their perception of student learning outcomes.

The stronger a faculty member's self-perceived relationship with their advisee, the higher their assessment of Students Learning Outcomes. As the level of faculty observed working alliance increased between a student and advisor so too did the students' learning outcomes. Recognition and respect for culture and shared power had a positive impact on the relationship

between an advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes. The effects were similar for all constructs in the model signifying a working alliance, shared power, and cultural consciousness each have comparable influence on student learning outcomes. Adding one variable to my analysis at a time allowed me to explicitly observe each constructs' impact on student learning outcomes. Increased levels of shared power and recognition of culture within the dyadic relationship is associated with increased student learning outcomes.

The final analysis in the hierarchical regression testing hypothesis two, the impact power and culture have on the relationship between an advisory alliance and student learning outcomes, yielded similar results to the analysis of hypothesis three, that assessed the influence of an advisory alliance, power, and cultural consciousness as a set on student learning outcomes using a simultaneous regression. The assessment of relationships between and among the constructs of working alliance, power, cultural consciousness, and student learning outcomes with a faculty advisor sample demonstrates the impact an advising relationship has on student learning. Fostering rapport and building a good relationship between a faculty advisor and student does not necessarily equate to having an effective relationship. Reflecting on and incorporating culture into discussion, decisions, and overall viewpoints or opinions is important for success. Similarly, establishing shared power within the relationship impacts the level of effectiveness.

CHAPTER V

Discussion

Reflection

Examining the relationships between and among advisory working alliance, shared power, cultural consciousness, and student learning outcomes with a faculty advisor sample allows for a better understanding of academic advising in institutions of higher education. Gaining insight into the relative influence cultural consciousness and shared power have on the relationship between a working alliance and undergraduate student learning outcomes facilitates constituents' research-informed decision-making when evaluating and assessing advising practices. The results of this study show a significant relationship between faculty advisors' perception of their advisory working alliance with undergraduate student advisees and their assessment of student learning outcomes. The results also show that advisors' ratings of cultural consciousness and shared power contribute to the working alliance with undergraduate student advisees and their perceptions of student learning outcomes.

After examining the relationship between faculty advisors' perceptions of the advising relationship and student learning outcomes of that relationship, the findings of this study shows that a working alliance is positively associated with faculty perceptions of student learning outcomes. The stronger a faculty advisor's perception of their relationship with an advisee, the higher students' perceived learning outcomes. Power and cultural consciousness, collectively and independently, impact the relationship between a faculty advisor's perceptions of a working alliance and student learning outcomes. Assessing one construct at a time established distinct evaluation of relationships between power, then subsequently cultural consciousness, and finally, those two constructs collectively. The results suggest that recognition and respect for shared

power within an advising session positively predicts the relationship between an advisory working alliance and faculty perceived student learning outcomes. Similarly, cultural consciousness within an advising session positively predicts the relationship between faculty members' perceived advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes. Incorporating shared power and cultural consciousness into advising relationships increases the impact of that relationship on student learning outcomes. Recognition and respect for power and cultural consciousness have a positive impact on the relationship between an advisory working alliance and student learning outcomes. Advisory working alliance, power, and cultural consciousness collectively explained 30% of variance in faculty perceptions of student learning outcomes.

In addition, the results showed that advisory working alliance, shared power, and cultural consciousness each have comparable influence on student learning outcomes. The coefficients of the simultaneous regression model all had the same relative weight with a positive regression slope illustrating that an advisory working alliance, shared power, and cultural consciousness all have a positive impact on student learning outcomes. The relative similar weights show that the positive impact in student learning outcomes is explained equally by an advisory working alliance, shared power, and cultural consciousness. Furthermore, typically constructs interact or operate in conjunction differently than they do in isolation, however cultural consciousness, as defined in this study, includes appreciation and regard for power dynamics. Therefore cultural consciousness and power are inherently overlapping, whether implicitly or explicitly, so they synergize with each other, which may explain the parallel results. Conceptualizing the findings of this study strongly suggests incorporating shared power and cultural consideration into advising sessions with undergraduate students will increase student learning outcomes and fundamentally student success.

The results of this study also provide preliminary support for an omnibus assessment instrument to promote a universal evaluation of academic advising across college/university campuses and academic departments. Each section within the questionnaire measures individual aspects of the advising relationship, and yet, as a set have the potential to provide a comprehensive examination of effectiveness. Reflecting on a working alliance requires individuals within the relationship to consider expectations, goals, and objectives of that relationship. Discussion and negotiation of expectations within a relationship requires shared power. Each person within the relationship is provided an opportunity to determine what they hope to achieve out of the relationship, essentially promoting student's self-advocacy and encouraging faculty release of power. Just as reflecting on a working alliance fosters shared power establishing shared power within a relationship also promotes a more open, communicative, and effective working alliance. Creating a more open working alliance permits individuals to be authentic and genuine opening the door to cultural sincerity, dialogue, and consideration. This instrument can be utilized for assessment and has the potential to improve advising practices. Utilizing Student Learning Outcomes (SLO) as an outcome measure within the instrument provides clarity for success measures and facilitates the ability to compare advising practices and its effectiveness.

Advising is associated with positive effects on student success (Schreiner et al., 2011), however rapport between a faculty advisor and student does not automatically establish effective student learning and development. The results of this study lend support to the proposition that reflection upon and incorporation of cultural awareness into discussions is essential for advisement and therefore student success. Similarly, establishing shared power within the relationship impacts the level of effectiveness. These findings support the overarching themes

that emerged from scholarship and expand on empirical evidence of positive outcomes for mentoring in academic settings (Curtin et al., 2016; Peterson, 2016;). Faculty advisors have positive effects on integration and student persistence (Schreiner et al., 2011) however acknowledging issues of power are essential in cultivating a productive meaningful relationship (Benishek et al., 2004; Fassinger, 2005). Increased levels of shared power and recognition of culture within a dyadic relationship is associated with increased student learning outcomes.

This study shows those positive relationships increase with the integration of culture and shared power constructs. Therefore, providing a foundation for the develop of a comprehensive advising model that incorporates culture and power constructs, and utilizing student learning outcomes as a success measure has the potential to increase those positive effects on student success and development. Utilizing these findings to support policy develop and advising practices will foster consistency and more effective methods for providing services across higher education universities. These findings are valuable to individuals eager to implement research-informed programs with the goal of reducing students' academic stress, promoting social support and increasing feelings of mattering on campus, and decreasing student dropout rates.

Implications

This study makes a substantial contribution to assessment of advising in institutions of higher education in a variety of ways. First, it is the first known study to consider faculty perceptions of dyadic student advisement relationships. Incorporating faculty voices in research is paramount as faculty play a large role in colleges and universities, particularly student support and achievement. Faculty perspectives of academic advising are valuable and offer important contributions to the development of student support systems on campus. Faculty members have served as academic advisors since the beginning of higher education (Thelin & Hirschy, 2009).

Neglecting faculty perceptions, experiences, and assessment of academic advising can be problematic as an advisor, often a faculty advisor, is the direct link between students and the university (Peterson, 2016). Moreover, factors impacting students' feeling connected to the university include faculty attitudes, academic support services, and mentoring (Turner & Myers, 2000).

Another critical contribution this study provides is additional validity information and extended application for the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005) and the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018). Adapting these instruments for the use of assessing undergraduate student advising provides readily available tools to promote continued effectiveness and for efficiently collecting data from faculty. This study also provides initial validity for the newly created Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) measure and Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014) measure. Addressing and highlighting diversity within a mentoring relationship allows students to strive towards their goals while maintaining their individuality ultimately establishing a more authentic experience. Establishing clearly defined learning outcomes as a method for determining advisement effectiveness on campuses creates more consistency and shared understanding of expectations of an advisor. This study provides evident direction for supporting the progress of student learning outcomes. An advisory working alliance, shared power, and cultural consciousness explain a significant proportion of the variance in student learning outcomes lending additional evidence of their impact on effective advising relationships. Integrating the consideration of power, cultural consciousness, and the measure of student learning outcomes provides a more holistic method of assessing advising services. This research study also provided an applicable outcome measure for assessing academic advising.

Finally, and primarily, these findings provide a foundation for creating a comprehensive assessment instrument to promote universal evaluation of academic advising services. The survey instrument as a whole singular measure established substantially high psychometric properties and explained a significant proportion of variance in student learning outcomes. As a set, the predictors power, cultural consciousness, and working alliance together established a large effect size of $R^2 > .30+$ in the model (Cohen, 1992). These findings support policy development, advising practices, and evaluation strategies. The findings also support consistency of effective approaches for providing services across colleges/universities and academic departments.

Recommendations for Future Research

Several recommendations follow this study involving suggestions for future research and implementation of findings. Notably, including student advisees' perceptions simultaneously while assessing faculty responses would add to the findings of this study. First, student responses would allow for comparing the two perspectives concurrently. This research might also assess how well each individual within the relationship believes they work together and will provide valuable insight into how students believe they are meeting learning outcomes. Second, by incorporating student responses, future research could provide insight into the student's perspective beyond satisfaction and allow for students' meaningful reflection of effectiveness. Finally, including student responses could allow their identities and additional demographic information to be considered. As yet another idea, this study could be replicated with professional academic advisors as the participant respondents, with the intention of reflecting on a comparison with faculty academic advisor responses, to provide greater understanding of differences in application, method of the service, and effectiveness.

The literature could also benefit from replicating this study with examination of differences in institutional type. This will allow for identifying any elicited differences in results between different types of 4-year colleges and community colleges, Historically Black Colleges and Universities when compared to Predominately White Institutions, or public versus private institutions. Differences in college/university type would be of investigative interest and could offer valuable information for how faculty perceptions of advising services may differ by institutional type and, by extension, across campuses. Appreciating the realities of racially minoritized faculty and their likelihood to be disproportionately carrying the burden of servicing students from disenfranchised groups (Durodoye et al., 2019), a recommendation for future researchers interested in studying faculty perceptions of dyadic advising relationships would be to replicate the study with a targeted focus on minority professors. This will allow for a clearer comparison and examination of any disparity in the yielded results with the over 80% White respondent sample in this study.

Another suggestion for future researchers intending to replicate this study would be to include a Hispanic/Latino(a) category checkbox option. While creating the questionnaire for this study, I used the race/ethnicity categories from the Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System (IPEDs) of the National Center for Educational Statistics data. In the IPEDs survey, individuals are asked to first designate ethnicity as: Hispanic or Latino or Not Hispanic or Latino. Second, individuals are asked to indicate one or more races that apply among the following options: American Indian or Alaska Native, Asian, Black or African American, Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander, or White. Missing the first question during my initial creation of the survey, I only included the latter categories in my survey options. Luckily, a large number of participants used the open-ended option on this item to write Hispanic, Mexican,

and/or Latino(a). Ultimately, I was able to add the Hispanic/Latino(a) option manually to my data for analysis however for future researchers I would suggest updating the race/ethnicity response options on the questionnaire to be more inclusive and representative of this population.

Adding direct student generated data from academic profiles to the assessment of academic advising would provide a more complete depiction of student achievement and potential success, creating a more holistic collection of data to better assess student learning outcomes. Including multiple methods of measurement such as qualitative, direct, indirect measurements and further quantitative data such as student GPA (both cumulative and major GPA) and graduation year, would add additional evidence to support the findings of this study. Measuring frequency and consistency of academic advising which allows the relationship to develop over time (Higgins, 2015; Mottarella et al., 2004) and allows for a better understanding of effectiveness when assessing student success. Incorporating additional student generated data into the study could provide a better understanding of student success and the impact of the faculty advising relationship.

Additionally, this study collected data cross-sectionally and since the advising relationship is dynamic and likely to change over time, a longitudinal research study could be beneficial. For future researchers interested in replicating the study, I suggest collecting faculty and student responses to the questionnaire used in this study and/or select scales during a full academic year. Allowing students the opportunity to identify what they believe they know, can do, and believe first-hand and comparing how relationships develop after both individuals have had an opportunity to identify and discuss their working alliance, shared power, and cultural consciousness would add valuable information to this holistic portfolio reflecting student development, progress, and potentially success. This or any other advising model should not be

viewed as a one-time evaluation of service, but rather as a formative evaluation of the dyadic advisor-advisee relationship to produce a better and more productive working relationship. Simply replicating this study after the major effects of the global COVID pandemic have been alleviated, and students' as well as faculty advisors' have regained normal levels of mental well-being, would provide insight into difference in faculty perceptions of advising services during a crisis situation since data was collected during this catastrophe.

Although faculty have served as academic advisors since the beginning of higher education (Thelin & Hirschy, 2009), scholarship significantly lacks faculty advisors' perspectives on academic advising evaluation and assessment. Having such limited contributions in the literature makes it difficult to make assumptions or develop theories regarding faculty advisors. The lack of faculty advisors' feedback could be due to the limited time available to them. Committing to filling out surveys and completing assessments only adds to their load of research, teaching, and service. Providing faculty with additional time and reduced workloads to perform the advising responsibilities effectively including assessment of the sessions would likely improve advisement and provide insight into process and methods commonly or preferably used when advising students. This phenomenon also raises a question of academic advising responsibility within those categories, how would time and effort spent on advising students be measured to produce reasonable recognition? Allocating, measuring, and determining recognition based on time and effort spent proves especially challenging when considering the inherent variability depending on the institution, department, and faculty advisor-student dyad. However, expectations for faculty to invest their energies into advising students without recognition for their contribution is unreasonable. To encourage investment from faculty advisors that would be necessary to incorporate constructs of multicultural consciousness and

valuing shared power as essential pieces of the conversation while mentoring and advising students, their efforts must be acknowledged. Another important consideration is the role of adjunct professors in higher education and advisement. As the current trend of the adjunctification of faculty continues to grow, how will this impact faculty academic advising responsibilities and expectations, faculty representation of diversity, and faculty cultural competence, particularly when assisting students from diverse backgrounds? Gaining a comprehensive understanding of student advising in institutions of higher education cannot be complete without recognizing faculty advisors' perceptions and experiences.

Research Into Practice

Applying this scale to students and gaining insight as to how well a student believes they work with their advisor would provide valuable information about effectiveness that goes beyond satisfaction. Applying the section of the questionnaire focusing on a working alliance in assessment practices would provide a more accurate depiction of the dyadic relationship beyond satisfaction, as satisfaction does not equate effectiveness. Having a fondness for your advisor or even developing strong rapport does not necessarily result in a successful working relationship. To help conceptualize this thought, we can imagine how much we love certain members of our family, and yet, have no desire to work alongside them on accomplishing professional tasks. Not only does this scale allow for internal reflection of a working relationship but also reflecting on a working relationship using this scale allows both individuals within the relationship to reflect on the other's experiences. Providing this scale concurrently and allocating time to share and discuss results will open the door to meaningful consideration and dialogue of the other individual in the relationship's point of view.

Completing this instrument regularly throughout the advising relationship rather than as a final evaluation of services could offer the groundwork necessary for developing and fostering open and honest communication within the experience. Finding and identifying incongruencies within the working relationship would open the door for a preliminary conversation about where each person believes things can “work better” and places for improvement, naturally and organically facilitating thoughts and feelings about satisfaction. This process can provide students the necessary opportunity for advocating for themselves and delicately claiming shared power within the relationship. Completing this instrument regularly throughout the advising relationship would also provide advisors the space to vocalize specifics they are expecting from the student. This process of routinely assessing the working alliance throughout the delivery of service often provides an integral opportunity for developing specific criteria agreed upon by both individuals within the relationship and a platform for continued assessment of those expectations. This cycle of assessment would also expose unexplored topics that may be vital to the working relationship and, once addressed, create headway for more meaningful work. Students and advisors can discuss how and what they are expecting from the relationship intermittently rather than delaying until after services have rendered to provide exit satisfaction survey responses. Exit satisfaction surveys as a method of assessment may assist the next cohort of students but is essentially too late to reverse, correct, or rectify any concerns throughout the relationship.

The unique sections focusing on distinct constructs within this complete questionnaire instrument all work independently yet complement one another’s objectives. Just as addressing a working alliance during and throughout an advising relationship enforces shared power so too does exercising shared power promote an open and successful working relationship. The

different scales (and constructs) work together in a harmonious progression into efficiency and effectiveness. The power dynamics section of the instrument, when employed, requires reflection on the concept of sharing power. The idea of sharing power within an advising relationship, while vital, may be unknown or unappreciated by many faculty advisors or students alike. This scale illustrates a concrete model with subscales and subsequently, items within the scale guiding students moving into and acquiring their power within the relationship. This could include vocalizing their needs and expectations but primarily encompasses, holding the responsibility of scheduling their own advising appointments, coming prepared with questions for the advisor, and setting an agenda for the meeting. The scale also demonstrates to faculty advisors an avenue for thoughtfully and intentionally releasing power to students. This instrument while utilized largely for assessment, if completed systematically throughout advising, has the potential to essentially improve advising practices. The process of applying this scale will create a vital opening to a proactive and positive cycle to prevent and, when, applicable, identifying and addressing fractures within the working relationship, and providing students the platform to articulate their needs, ultimately addressing student satisfaction throughout services rather than after. Each of these scales could be used independently, however the complete instrument provides a sequence of significant facets that woven together offer a comprehensive approach for addressing the complexities of a productive advisement relationship.

The multicultural feminist model acts similarly as it signals to students that it is “okay” and appropriate to bring your whole genuine and sincere self into a professional conversation. Being a successful individual does not entail leaving your past lived experiences and cultural backgrounds at the door. In fact, it is quite the opposite. It is more difficult to be successful when you are only offering parts of yourself to the process. Opening the door to conversations about

cultural differences and how that has shaped values, priorities, and interests accelerates a student's capacity to perform. This process of authenticity permits them to use all of the tools in their toolbox. Furthermore, the scale within the instrument focusing on cultural consciousness provides faculty who may be hesitate about approaching or initiating sensitive topics a clear path for discussion. It is important to note that even individuals with the same cultural or ethnic backgrounds may have very different experiences or connections with that culture. The cultural consciousness scale does not measure how different or similar two people are but rather the individual's consideration to and appreciation of differences regardless of how subtle or vastly foreign they may be. Allowing individuals to tell their own stories is essential to this process as every person is unique with divergent circumstances including but not limited to mental or physical health issues, students dealing with an emotional crisis, students returning from academic probation or dismissal, LGBT students, military veterans, international students, pre-professional students, racial/ethnic minority students, or adult students, and the list goes on. Mending the separation of culture and professional careers, as so much of who we are and how we approach our occupations are shaped by our culture, facilitates a stronger more complete investment of self.

Utilizing Student Learning Outcomes (SLO) as an outcome measure within the instrument provides a unique advantage to assessing academic advising. Not only do SLOs examine effectiveness beyond satisfaction but they also provide a comprehensive framework for measuring advisement outcomes. Academic advising is a factor when considering conventional student success measures such as graduation and retention however, reducing and focusing the lens specifically on SLOs provides a more defined measurement of academic advising success. The National Academic Advising Association (NACADA) organized the skills students should

be acquiring as a result of academic advising into Student Learning Outcomes and I formed those learning outcomes into the scale used and validated in this study. Applying them to assessment practices magnifies the ability to explore the impact of academic advising on student development and success, streamlines measurement, and enables the assessment of advising beyond the arbitrary measure of satisfaction and beyond graduation/retention rates. Regularly using SLOs not only provides clarity for success measures across campuses, disciplines, and universities nationally but also facilitates the ability to compare advising practices and its effectiveness.

Incorporating constructs of multicultural consciousness and valuing shared power are essential pieces of the conversation while mentoring and advising students on college campus. The relationship between faculty advisors and undergraduate students is fundamental to advisement, student retention, and success (Johnson-Garcia, 2010; Leach & Wang, 2015; Moore, 2020; Schreiner et al., 2011; Thelin & Hirschy, 2009; Thomas, 2000). Educating faculty about the importance of incorporating differences into advising conversations, and how to do so, is essential. This expectation may be easier said than done as many individuals are likely to not realize their shortcomings in these areas. The findings of this study suggest that incorporating shared power and cultural considerations into advising sessions with undergraduate students will increase student learning outcomes and, ultimately student success. As content experts, faculty have positive effects on student learning, persistence, and integration into the college environment (Schreiner et al., 2011). Helping them develop in these areas can increase their positive influence on student development.

Encouraging shared power in the advising relationships is also likely to expose faculty to diverse student perspectives, shed light on, and correct misinformed stereotypes. This process

would also promote the development and honing of critical social emotional tools necessary for effective advising. Effective advisors do not view differences as weakness or hindrances to success. It is likely that the more personalized experience faculty advisors have with students from marginalized groups, facilitated by employing the instrument in this study, the more awareness and recognition they will develop to individualized student needs and desires. At its best, this process will foster approaching advising with an open mind, appreciating each student's uniqueness regardless of culture, and normalize students discussing their lived experiences. Acknowledging diversity within an advising relationship can serve as an avenue for additional support within complex and foreign learning models.

Research focusing on mentor advising practices shows high preference for race/ethnic matching but no benefits to outcomes of the relationship (Swift et al., 2015) however students continue to flock towards racially minoritized professors. The homogeneity of the professorate and the simultaneous increase in diverse student body population (Filson & Whittington, 2013; Leach & Wang, 2015; Mottarella et al., 2004; Tinto, 2015; Turner & Thompson, 2014) often means racially minoritized professors are carrying the burden and disproportionately tasked with servicing students from disenfranchised groups, ultimately jeopardizing their own professional and career advancement (Durodoye et al., 2019; Pololi et al., 2010; Turner et al., 1999).

Recognizing the realities of race/ethnic matching and providing an alternative by offering all faculty the tools necessary to provide multiculturally appropriate advising approaches would reduce the load on minority faculty. The results of this study suggest this can be achieved by developing advising models that incorporate culture and power constructs. The creation of comprehensive advising models targeting integration of multicultural awareness is necessary to meet the needs of contemporary students from diverse backgrounds with varying degrees of

resources available to them. Implementing programs and procedures on campus that align with this empirical evidence will promote student development. As academic institutions continue to diversify, advising models and assessment practices must begin to address the needs of all students including those from marginalized groups. Understanding and appreciating the demonstrated impact of faculty advisors' relationships with their advisees on student learning outcomes is crucial to the development of practical models.

The findings of this study also support the need for considering qualities, skills, and knowledge necessary for cultural consciousness and sharing power to be attended to in the faculty hiring process. Just as medical doctors are expected to have adequate bedside manners as a large portion of their job includes ensuring patients feel comfortable and safe, so too should faculty be expected to demonstrate the cultural sensitivity to allow students the ability to feel welcomed and included on college campus. This standard of expectation can be accomplished through regular trainings for working faculty members, providing transparency to individuals interested in becoming faculty, and within educational programs preparing students for faculty roles. Knowing that these qualities and knowledge are valuable to the role of faculty the expectation should be infused within and throughout the entire cycle of the faculty profession. Appreciating and prioritizing the time and energies spent on effective advising at all levels, and providing faculty with monetary awards or grants towards research could be implemented to acknowledge and further motivate faculty. Faculty advisors should be made aware that these skills are valued and prioritized by higher education administrators and constituents. Enlightened by empirical findings, evolving policies and practices should strive toward the promotion of equality.

The lack of research regarding assessment practices of advising (Powers et al., 2014) and the over-reliance on student evaluations and satisfaction surveys (Braun & Zolfagharian, 2016; Broadbridge, 1996; Hamed et al., 2015) illustrates this study fills a critically important gap in the literature, however it does not fully remedy the demand for continuous assessment (McClellan, 2011; Taras, 2007). Continued evaluation of academic advising is deficient without incorporating constructs of power and culture. This research sheds light on constructs of power and cultural consciousness' impact on the effectiveness of an advising relationship. This study also provided a generally applicable outcome measure for assessing academic advising on a dyadic level with the use of student learning outcomes.

Utilizing these applicable outcomes measures will progressively and accurately enhance understanding of effectiveness in academic advising and facilitate the implementation of more effective strategies. The results of this study lend support to the position that creating programs on campus that support faculty appreciation of incorporating differences in culture and power into advising conversation will have a positive impact on the effectiveness of faculty advising relationships with students. Offering professional development trainings on how to best accomplish this task is also essential as some individuals may find topics concerning power and cultural differences inappropriate or difficult to discuss, evading them without the realization of potential benefits.

To truly assess effectiveness, student satisfaction surveys should be significantly reduced or eliminated completely from the assessment of academic advising programs, services, and evaluation or conclusions about advisors' effectiveness (Braun & Zolfagharian, 2016; Hamed et al., 2015). Student satisfaction surveys are biased, unreliable (Bitner et al., 1997; Mills & Morris, 1986; Roter, 1977; Wu, 2011) and lack the ability to measure the scope of advising (McClellan,

2011; Robbins, 2009; Robbins & Adams, 2013; Robbins & Zarges, 2011). If personnel are determined to incorporate student satisfaction surveys into the assessment of academic advising, providing prior and sufficient instruction to students about the scope of advising to promote more realistic and accurate expectations is required so satisfaction could more closely align with effectiveness of outcomes. Another approach would be to incorporate student experiences within a larger portfolio of assessment including other quantitative student-generated data in direct records, and advisor perceptions and experiences, as a more holistic view. This would allow for measurement of student experiences in a way that at least partially addresses the limitations of student satisfaction surveys as currently used. Reducing student satisfaction surveys should not diminish the already lacking research regarding assessment practices of academic advising (Powers et al., 2014). On the contrary, it is recommended for scholarship to continue exploring best practices for assessing academic advising and work to add to the limited assessments. Increasing attention to assessment will decrease inconsistency of language and confusion regarding the role of an academic advisor in institutions of higher education. Increasing assessment is vital for gaining insight into effectiveness of academic advising, promoting improvement, and establishing more effective strategies. Moreover, I recommend increasing the integration of student learning outcomes to better understand goals and objectives of academic advising, as current assessments rarely utilize them (Aiken-Wisniewski et al., 2010; Campbell et al., 2005; Powers et al., 2014; Robbins, 2009, Robbins & Zarges, 2011).

Conclusion

Institutions of higher education are admitting students at higher rates than ever before however many students are unable to persist. Researchers exploring the critical reality of student dropout rates found that academic advising plays an essential role in degree completion (Bloom

et al., 2007; Curtin et al., 2013; King, 1993). Increased research found that acknowledgement and exploration of differences, including power differences, promotes a more authentic mentoring relationship. Fully participating in the relationship, as a result, facilitates higher skill level. Evaluation of privilege and power within a relationship develops mutually beneficial outcomes by inviting more authentically involved individuals, consequently fostering respect for one another. Acknowledging differences is essential in cultivating a productive mentoring relationship (Benishek et al., 2004; Fassinger, 2005). Recognizing differences as facilitators allows both parties to engage in meaningful open dialogue rather than avoid important topics (Arczynski & Morrow, 2017) which encourages disingenuousness and restricts engagement within the relationship.

Academic advising is a key component directly impacting student development (Bloom et al., 2007; Curtin et al., 2013; King, 1993) however colleges and universities implement the service with various differences across campuses. With all of the inconsistency there has been limited assessment to evaluate effectiveness (He & Hutson, 2016; Powers et al., 2014). To effectively evaluate academic advising, there must be an establishment of outcome measures. As student success is a primary goal of advisors, failing to consider outcome measures while evaluating academic advising in institutions of higher education is detrimental to the results of an evaluation. This study builds on the importance of incorporating constructs of culture and power differences within an advising relationship by utilizing Student Learning Outcomes (SLO) as the outcome measure to establish effectiveness. This study supports the overarching themes that emerged from scholarship and expand on empirical evidence.

The results of this study show a significant relationship between faculty advisors' perception of their advisory working alliance, their ratings of cultural consciousness and shared

power with undergraduate student advisees and how that contributes to their perceptions of student learning outcomes. The results suggest that recognition and respect for shared power and cultural consciousness within an advising session positively predicts the relationship between an advisory working alliance and faculty perceived student learning outcomes. An advisory working alliance, shared power, and cultural consciousness explain a significant proportion of the variance in student learning outcomes lending additional evidence of their impact on effective advising relationships. This research sheds light on how integrating the consideration of power, cultural consciousness, and the measure of student learning outcomes may provide a more holistic method of assessing advising services. The survey instrument developed and utilized in this study demonstrated substantially high psychometric properties establishing the foundation for a comprehensive assessment instrument to promote universal evaluation of academic advising.

This study provides additional validity information and extended application for the Advisory Working Alliance Inventory (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005) and the Power Dynamics Supervisor Scale (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018), provides initial validity for the newly created Multicultural Feminist Model (Benishek et al., 2004) measure and Student Learning Outcomes (Powers et al., 2014) measure while considering faculty perceptions of dyadic student advisement relationships. This study also provided a generally applicable outcome measure for assessing academic advising with the use of SLOs. Student learning outcomes provide a framework for measuring advisement outcomes, providing the opportunity to enhance understanding of effectiveness in academic advising, and facilitate the implementation of more effective strategies.

These findings support policy development, advising practices, and evaluation strategies. Increasing attention to assessment will decrease inconsistency of language and confusion regarding the role of an academic advisor in institutions of higher education. Increasing assessment is vital for gaining insight into effectiveness of academic advising, promoting improvement, and establishing more effective strategies. The findings also support consistency of effective approaches for providing services across colleges/universities and academic departments.

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APPENDIX A

ADAPTED ADVISORY WORKING ALLIANCE INVENTORY – ADVISOR VERSION (AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005)

The instruments used in this study are available from the author:

Hind Albana, PhD
Hind.albana@shu.edu

ADVISORY WORKING ALLIANCE INVENTORY – ADVISOR VERSION
(AWAI-A; Schlosser & Gelso, 2005)

The AWAI-A, including permission for use is available from:

Lewis Z. Schlosser, PhD, ABPP
www.ifp-testing.com

APPENDIX B

ADAPTED MULTICULTURAL – FEMINIST MENTORING MODEL (MFM; Benishek et al., 2004)

The instruments used in this study are available from the author:

Hind Albana, PhD
Hind.albana@shu.edu

APPENDIX C

ADAPTED POWER DYNAMICS IN SUPERVISION SCALE (PDSS; Cook et al., 2018)

The instruments used in this study are available from the author:

Hind Albana, PhD
Hind.albana@shu.edu

POWER DYNAMICS IN SUPERVISION SCALE
(PDSS; Cook et al., 2018)

The PDSS, including permission for use, is available from:

Ryan Cook, PhD, LPC, ACS
rmcook@ua.edu

APPENDIX D

STUDENT LEARNING OUTCOMES (SLO) (SLOs; Powers et al., 2014)

The instruments used in this study are available from the author:

Hind Albana, PhD
Hind.albana@shu.edu

APPENDIX E

Demographic Survey

Gender: [Male/Female/Other]

Race/Ethnicity: [Open-ended]

Position: [Adjunct, Assistant Professor, Associate Professor, Other with an open-ended response]

How many years have you been a Faculty Advisor: [open-ended, numerical response answer]

Type of institution: [4-year public, 4-year private]

Name of University: [Open-ended] *Optional*

Discipline or Department: [Open Ended]



December 14th, 2020

Hind Albana
Seton Hall University

Re: 2021-166

Dear Hind,

At its December meeting, the Research Ethics Committee of the Seton Hall University Institutional Review Board reviewed and approved your research proposal entitled, *"Faculty Advisors' Perceptions of Power and Cultures' Impact on Advisement Relationships"*. This memo serves as official notice of the aforementioned study's approval. Enclosed for your records are the stamped original Consent Form and recruitment flyer. You can make copies of these forms for your use.

The Institutional Review Board approval of your research is valid for a one-year period from the date of this letter. During this time, any changes to the research protocol, informed consent form or study team must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to their implementation.

You will receive a communication from the Institutional Review Board at least 1 month prior to your expiration date requesting that you submit an Annual Progress Report to keep the study active, or a Final Review of Human Subjects Research form to close the study. In all future correspondence with the Institutional Review Board, please reference the ID# listed above.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Mara C. Podvey, PhD, OTR
Associate Professor
Co-Chair, Institutional Review Board

Phyllis Hansell, EdD, RN, DNAP, FAAN
Professor
Co-Chair, Institutional Review Board

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